

VOLUME 32, NUMBER 2 • OCTOBER, 1961

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

**American Association
of Junior Colleges**

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

The American Association of Junior Colleges will make available to libraries the present and future volumes of the JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL in microfilm form. Inquiries should be directed to University Microfilm, 313 North First Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

VOLUME XXXII

OCTOBER 1961

NUMBER 2

NEW FRONTIERS IN CURRICULUM FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES	Marvin A. Rapp	65
BUSINESS TEACHER PREPARATION—CALIFORNIA STYLE!	Richard S. Perry	72
ACADEMIC PROBATION AND SUSPENSION PRACTICES IN PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES	Thomas C. Dula and Raymond E. Schultz	78
LINE OF RESPONSIBILITY—AN ADMINISTRATIVE NECESSITY	Stuart E. Marsee	84
JUNIOR COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS' PHILOSOPHIES RELATIVE TO RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS OF FACULTY MEMBERS	Bill G. Rainey	86
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MEASURED AND ANTICIPATED ACHIEVEMENT IN READING	Robert L. Curry and Hugie Hughes	91
A SURVEY OF MARRIAGE EDUCATION IN TWENTY-NINE JUNIOR COLLEGES	George W. Gambill	97
JUNIOR COLLEGE COUNSELING NEEDS	Lester A. Alderson	100
ORGANIZING THE FACULTY FOR THE INSTITUTIONAL SELF-STUDY	David L. McKenna	104
CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED OF INTEREST TO JUNIOR COLLEGE READERS		111
THE JUNIOR COLLEGE WORLD	Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.	116
RECENT WRITINGS		
JUDGING THE NEW BOOK		121

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL is published monthly from September to May, inclusive. Subscription: \$4.00 a year, 50 cents a copy. Group subscriptions available to junior colleges at \$2.00 a year each: minimum of 10 to junior colleges with 20 or more full-time faculty, minimum of one-half total number of faculty to junior colleges with less than 20 faculty, minimum of 10 to classes of graduate students in junior college education. Communications regarding editorial matters should be addressed to James W. Reynolds, College of Education, The University of Texas, P.O. Box 7998, Austin 12, Texas. Correspondence regarding advertisements and subscriptions should be addressed to Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., executive director of the American Association of Junior Colleges, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Second-class postage paid at Washington, D.C. and at additional mailing offices.

[Printed in U. S. A.]



American Airlines Stewardess Corps offers your graduates

Broader horizons. A Stewardess has a varied, rewarding career—one that offers your graduates post-graduate work in people and places!

Travel. American Airlines serves the most varied group of major cities in the country—flies to Toronto and Mexico City too. On the job, an American Stewardess receives an expense allowance for overnight stops away from home base. On vacation, she can fly free on American, gets special rates for travel all over the world.

Prestige. American Airlines was the first to offer transcontinental jet serv-

ice. It now operates the largest Jet and turbine-powered fleet of planes in the United States. An American Stewardess is sure of working in attractive, modern surroundings.

Contacts. The experienced traveler prefers American Airlines. So at work, she meets interesting, well-informed—often prominent—people.

Free Training. A Stewardess-candidate spends 6½ weeks at company expense at the beautiful American Airlines Stewardess College. This college is the only one of its kind in the world. Located between Dallas and Fort

Worth, Texas, college facilities range from spacious living-study quarters to swimming pool and beauty shop. The course is thorough, intensive—and ranges from jet-age aviation to the art of conversation.

High starting salary. A Stewardess salary starts at \$335 per month, and it increases to \$365 at the end of one year. Regular increases come automatically thereafter.

Good future. There are also training and supervisory positions open to the experienced Stewardess who decides on a long-range career with American.

Your graduates offer the American Airlines Stewardess Corps

Intelligence, initiative. A college girl has a sense of responsibility. She recognizes the importance of the job that she has to do.

Curiosity. She is genuinely interested in the world around her. A young woman planning eventually to continue her education, but eager to see something of the world first, could find serving as an American Airlines Stewardess an ideal opportunity to combine travel with earning her living.

Pride. She enjoys representing America's leading airline, presiding graciously over gleaming Jet Flagships. Standards are high, but all who are

selected are healthy, well-mannered, friendly girls, between 20 and 26 years old, 5'3 to 5'8" tall—girls whose background, education and ambitions are very like her own.

Interest in people. The college girl is able to recognize and please many different types of people. She is thoughtful, alert, almost intuitively sensitive to individual needs.

Willingness to learn. The college girl quickly absorbs such courses as aircraft familiarization, theory of flight and passenger service. She appreciates good grooming and she enjoys the professional training she receives in

improving her appearance and poise.

Enthusiasm. She is proud of doing a job well. Whether or not she plans to continue her career with the airline, she knows that the more she puts into this work, as any other, the more she will get from it.

When a team of American Airlines interviewers visits your campus, qualified students will find an interview well worth their time. Why not suggest it to your students?

If you would like more information about the American Airlines Stewardess Training Program, mail the coupon below to:

Miss Helen Collins • American Airlines Stewardess College • Amon Carter Field, Fort Worth, Texas JC-10

Please send me more information on the American Airlines Stewardess Training Program.

Name _____ Address _____

City _____ State _____

Name of School _____

**BOOKS****ENGINEERING DRAWING
and GEOMETRY****Second Edition**

By RANDOLPH P. HOELSCHER and CLIFFORD H. SPRINGER, *both of the University of Illinois*. A revised edition of a famous engineering graphics textbook. 1961. 628 pages. \$8.95.

OPERATIONAL ELECTRICITY

**Theory, Characteristics, Applications
and Mode of Operation of Circuits and
Machines**

By CHARLES I. HUBERT, *U.S. Merchant Marine Academy*. An integrated presentation of ac and dc circuits and machinery. 1961. 530 pages. \$8.50.

FAMILY CLOTHING

By MILDRED THUROW TATE and ORIS GLISSON, *both of Virginia Polytechnic Institute*. Covers the physiological, psychological, artistic, social, and economic factors involved in selecting apparel. 1961. 412 pages. \$8.75.

DESIGN FOR YOU

By ETHEL JANE BEITLER and BILL C. LOCKHART, *both of Texas Technological College*. Presents the elements of design and the principles for organizing and evaluating them. 1961. 206 pages. \$7.95.

PRINCIPLES OF REFRIGERATION

By ROY J. DOSSAT, *University of Houston*. Covers all aspects of designing, installing, and servicing refrigeration and air conditioning equipment. 1961. 544 pages. \$9.50.

**SIMPLIFIED MECHANICS and
STRENGTH of MATERIALS****Second Edition**

By HARRY PARKER, *University of Pennsylvania*. This well-known text has been revised to accord with current working stresses and design requirements. 1961. 285 pages. \$5.75.

**An INTRODUCTION to the
ELEMENTS of MATHEMATICS**

By JOHN N. FUJII, *Oakland City College*. A modern text for liberal arts and other non-technical students. 1961. 312 pages. \$6.25.

**MEALS for the MODERN
FAMILY**

By MARGARET Q. BATJER, *The Pennsylvania State University*; and MIMI ATWATER, *Homemaker and Nutritionist*. Shows how to introduce creativity and variety into preparing family meals. 1961. 196 pages. \$4.95.

HOUSEHOLD EQUIPMENT**Fifth Edition**

By LOUISE JENNISON PEET, *Iowa State University*; and LENORE SATER THYE, *U.S. Dept. of Agriculture*. A thoroughly revised edition of this famous guide to selecting, using, and maintaining household equipment. 1961. 357 pages. \$7.75.

PLANETS, STARS, and GALAXIES

By STUART J. INGLIS, *Contra Costa College*. A lucid and well-organized textbook that assumes no background in mathematics or the sciences. 1961. 474 pages. \$6.75.

Send for examination copies.

JOHN WILEY & SONS, INC. 440 Park Avenue South, New York 16, N.Y.

A NEW 4th Edition

ECONOMICS

PRINCIPLES AND APPLICATIONS

By Dodd and Hailstones

More emphasis in this book is placed on economic analysis with descriptive material minimized whenever possible. Economic analysis is related to current problems or events in the economy in order to show the practical aspects and to arouse reader interest. Certain chapters and parts are rearranged and rewritten in order to improve the presentation of the textual material. It is a carefully planned, scholarly written book that will give the student a suitable background in economic principles and problems for further specialization in the field or for general use in other fields.

SOUTH-WESTERN PUBLISHING CO.

(Specialists in Business and Economic Education)

Cincinnati 27, New Rochelle, N.Y., Chicago 5, Burlingame, Calif., Dallas 2



student subscriptions to
TIME for as little as 8¢ a
week.



your own complimentary
desk copy.



class participating in the
annual Current Affairs Con-
test and the Man of the
Year Sweepstakes.



authoritative, informative
teaching aids: maps, charts,
posters, special reports.

To find out more about the TIME EDUCATION PROGRAM—and see why over 3500 teachers enrolled last year—just complete and return the coupon. We'll also send you, as a representative teaching aid, the 50-question, 10-page 1961 Vacation Review Quiz.

TIME EDUCATION PROGRAM
TIME & LIFE BUILDING
ROCKEFELLER CENTER
NEW YORK 20, NEW YORK

NAME _____

ADDRESS _____

CITY _____

ZONE _____

STATE _____



Here's a plan for helping your faculty and staff to afford realistic protection against the smashing financial impact of big medical bills.

TIAA's Group Major Medical Expense insurance can pick up where existing "base plans" such as Blue Cross and Blue Shield leave off, or it can provide the entire medical expense program at a college.

TIAA's record of "same day" service would be hard to duplicate anywhere, since 98% of all Major Medical benefit payments are mailed out to the colleges on the same day the bills are received at TIAA.

More than 250 educational institutions have already made this new form of TIAA protection available to their staff members.

Colleges, universities, private schools and non-profit research or educational organizations are eligible, whether or not they have a TIAA retirement or insurance program now. Send for full information.



**TEACHERS INSURANCE
AND ANNUITY ASSOCIATION**
730 Third Avenue, New York 17, N. Y.

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME XXXII

OCTOBER 1961

NUMBER 2

New Frontiers in Curriculum for Community Colleges*

MARVIN A. RAPP

AMERICA TODAY is moving forward toward new frontiers with the determined political purpose and brilliantly polished prose of the new president of the United States. If the frontier explains America's successful development, the conquest of new frontiers may be expected to continue the phenomenon. With the new decade a year old it is time for new beginnings in many fields. Perhaps the nature of change has become so constant and comprehensive that time now and henceforth will endlessly demand new beginnings or at least continual modifications of older beginnings to accommodate new environment. Technological revolutions compounded of technological revolutions mark this age. Swirling in, on, and about the world for more than a century and a half, growing yearly in magnitude and intensity, the Industrial and Scientific Revolutions have reached deeply into, and essentially affected, almost every aspect of modern living. Change feeding on change, daily increasing at an ever-faster rate, have become paradoxically the seeming constant of life.

As the modern years have continued to

* This speech was presented at the Metropolitan Regional Conference at the Fashion Institute of Technology.

Formerly Associate Executive Dean of the State University of New York, MARVIN A. RAPP is Vice President of Nassau Community College, Mineola, N. Y.

measure time with the same unvarying rhythm—no faster, no slower—human achievement, the true clock of civilization, has indeed accelerated. What formerly took a century before the Industrial Revolution now takes less than a decade, and soon perhaps will take less than a year. The rate of man's physical conquest of his environment correlates to a marked extent with his ability to increase his speed of movement and transmission of thought. From oxcart and wheel to steamboat and locomotive, man needed 5,000 years. From then to the automobile and the airplane, he needed less than 100 years; the next step, to the atomic age, about 40 years; and the next, to the satellites, only 12 years. In the decade and a half just passed, most moderns have (at least in the world of words) moved from the Atomic Age to the Space Age, in a sense, without having really lived in either one as yet. Since World War II, science has unlocked a Pandora's box of material miracles. Almost every week a newspaper headline announces a new discovery or invention. The onward rush of modern science (still so young) indicates that this is only a substantial beginning. Remember, 90 per cent of all of the scientists who have ever lived since the beginning of time actually live now!

Significantly, man's available time for adjustment to the new grows shorter, as new ideas, new things, and new ways of doing things, multiply and proliferate al-

most in geometric progression. Greater personal desire for and involvement in pure and practical research, greater efficiency in and more attention to the applied sciences, more knowledge and education for more people, better tools in better hands, quicker and clearer communication shorten the time lag from raw idea to refinement to planning board to model to commercial application and popular expression. Almost in an inverse ratio, the shorter the time in the quickened process of practical progress, the more difficult becomes an adequate comprehension of the mandates of new processes, products, power, place changes, and consequent adjustment and readjustment thereto.

What is true of the material and mechanical is becoming true of the mental. The necessity of bringing human, environmental, educational, economic accommodation and adjustment into balance with new inventions and discoveries and intellectual demands becomes daily a greater problem. Unless intelligent use is made of such changes, the resulting disequilibrium will bring prolonged and painful economic and social dislocation. Without remedy, it will continue to grow more acute. Because of the rapid introduction of new scientific and technological achievements, man must shorten the time of understanding their broad implications, of accelerating their acceptance, of providing for their accommodation and of making the necessary psychological and societal adjustments demanded.

Largely upon education, especially higher education, falls the almost impossible task of controlling these revolutionary changes and of ordering their direction so that they will prove to be the boon and

not the bane of civilization. America has rediscovered education even as the new administration has rediscovered Harvard. Under such pressure, educators must use the knowledge, the art, the wisdom which their disciplines, experiences, and minds have given them to preserve and present the precious essence of the past even as they anticipate and organize new learning around the dynamic factors of the present and the future. With the god-like prescience of Janus, the educator charged with preserving civilization and preparing the young for the world of the future, must at once and at the same time take the long look into the future as he takes the hard look into the past. Only those conscious of the past and the present, schooled in the disciplines, skilled in the techniques of practice and action, experienced in the art of teaching, filled with the wonderment of why, sensitive to future directions can, with reason and balance, organize the creative knowledge of the world to achieve the highest aspirations of humanity. Others may talk of the new frontier. In truth it is in our hands. This is the professional obligation of the dedicated educator.

To harness efficiently the tremendous chain reaction explosion of population and the equally tremendous explosion of knowledge so that its power can be realized and released, to achieve excellence in living, the educator must make sure that "word-fact" and "action-fact" process and proficiency are so organized in curriculum and course and so presented in class that basic understanding of and continuing motivation for the learning required for the effective, educated man follows naturally. On October 4, 1957, the first artificial satellite went into orbit

around the earth. The achievement startled the world. It shook America to its grass roots. Dramatically it challenged America's leadership — economically, technologically, militarily, and diplomatically. What American education had tried to do, a Russian Sputnik did. It opened a new age and the new frontier of space. It forced America to make an agonizing reappraisal of American education. Analysis did expose weaknesses but mostly in emphasis. Study revealed ways in which to strengthen programs of education. Action followed. But the greatest result of Sputnik was to galvanize public support behind the kind of education in quality and quantity most educators have always desired. It intensified markedly societal, parental, and individual motivation for better and more intellectually rigorous education. Almost four years have passed since Sputnik. A high school and college generation has grown up in the pioneer space age. In that time at every level of education there has been greater emphasis on better teacher and student preparation, on the exactitudes of the disciplines of science and art.

Just as the launching of Sputnik startled the world, the explosion of knowledge and population within the last decade has rocked its institutions. The government has discovered education to be the ultimate weapon in the struggle for civilization. The politician has discovered it to be a fruitful issue. Within the last few months, less than four years after Sputnik, no less than five reports on higher education for the state of New York have been issued: the Heald Report; Regents Report; New York City Board of Education Report; Levitt Report; and State University's Master Plan. Though they differ

in detail, they all agree on the undeniable indispensability of the community college to help solve the problem besetting higher education. In these official pronouncements higher education has accepted community colleges in full partnership, thus predicated ready and reasonable articulation demands. Articulation requires much more than the consideration of the transfer of students. It requires cooperative planning of programs among the secondary, the community college, and the upper divisional institutions of higher learning. The studies recommend the immediate increase of the number of community colleges, sizable increases in the enrollments of existing community colleges, and the broadening of programs in all of the colleges.

These higher educational reports call for the introduction of liberal arts in all of the two-year institutions save one. Upon the community colleges, probably more than on any other set of institutions, will rest the attempt to meet the needs of the greatest number of college students this state and nation has ever faced. By 1985, the community colleges of New York State must be prepared to accommodate and educate 125,000 students in its comprehensive programs. Its task is colossal, and it must do it with some colleges not yet in existence. It must organize the presentation of knowledge in such a way as to accommodate the greatest number of students with the greatest variability of aptitude in the greatest diversity of fields in the fastest changing areas of knowledge and proficiency within the shortest time span allotted in the educational hierarchy. With amazing unanimity, almost relief, each of the reports charges these institutions with meeting the challenge of num-

bers and the maintenance of quality. It rests in our hands. It can be done, it must be done, it will be done, if America is to realize the new frontiers of civilization.

Its responsibility must be discharged against the changing objectives of other educational institutions. The community college curriculum is positioned between the changing curriculum and emphasis of the secondary school and the changing curriculum and emphasis of upper divisional colleges and universities. In the field of engineering there is evidence that the engineering colleges are moving into the field of engineering science. In the next decade as this development evolves, the technical curriculum of the community colleges must satisfy the needs which the engineering colleges filled a decade ago. To accept this enlarged responsibility of learning accentuated by the necessity of new knowledge within the traditional fields of engineering, the community college must, if it is to retain the time span allotted to it in the educational system:

1. Organize its material more efficiently.
2. Present its courses more effectively.
3. Utilize its time more constructively.
4. Expand from the academic year to the calendar year.

As technological advancement, particularly automation, visits its impact upon the economy of the world, the skills, techniques, and technical processes involving muscular repetition will disappear. As digital and analogue computers develop greater sophistication, mental repetitive processes and the skills involved in performing them will likewise be diminished. In part this may remove some of the responsibility for some of the technical phases now covered at the voca-

tional, secondary, and, to a limited extent, at the community college level. In the enrichment of the secondary level and the broadening of its program, this will lessen somewhat the broad area of responsibility which the community colleges will have to assume in the engineering and technical fields.

The educational leaders, whose reports recently released will blueprint the future development of higher education, indicate that the community colleges will have to accept as their continually growing responsibility the first two years of liberal arts. Let us consider returning general education to the liberal arts and the liberal arts to the disciplines. As a start, communication skills, often confused with "Western Union Technology," might be returned to plain, old English. Likewise, in the social studies, the older disciplines might be reviewed anew, realigned, re-oriented and reorganized in order to make the most effective use of the inter-relation of the old and new fields and the new knowledge now available. It may be that here and in other liberal arts fields a total look at curriculum from kindergarten through graduate school needs to be taken so that its parts can be better related. The offerings of the community colleges should be such that in the depth and breadth of their scope they successfully achieve the impossible by making courses both terminal and transfer. At a minimum, the liberal arts and science offerings should meet the minimum standards set by the four-year liberal arts colleges. The community colleges should not, however, be satisfied with minimum standards. The organization and presentation of their liberal arts material should be richer than that offered in most four-year liberal arts col-

leges. Because of the time span, the emphasis upon teaching, guidance and counseling, the emphasis on the individual and the goals and objectives, terminal and transfer, the constant evaluation and review of curriculums, the educational offerings of the community college more effectively fit the psychological and physiological level and development of the freshman and sophomore student.

Every curriculum course and class must generally and particularly cultivate in the student those proficiencies and skills required by modern learning and earning, the motivation of creativity and criticism and the appreciation of heritage that moves the past into a richer future. Much of this, of course, is involved in the so-called "Art of Teaching." The inspiration that springs divine-like from the scholarly enthusiasm of the devoted teacher and touches the well-springs of learning in the students cannot be accurately measured. It is difficult, perhaps impossible, to measure subjective matters objectively; yet constant attempts should be made to measure both the subjective and objective aspects of effective teaching. To some this may in fact be a basic contradiction of fact. Yet an instillation of love of learning can be sensed by administrators and colleagues alike through the reaction of students, the quality and nature of their work, their success in continuing education and their achievements in their professions. Use of the instruments of measurement developed and described in the *Effective Teaching Report of State University's Community Colleges, 1958-1959*, makes a partial answer to this question of measurement and evaluation in teaching. Much of the effectiveness in meeting the problem of numbers and quality in higher

education relates to the presentation of material. This continues to be of general concern as it was of particular concern in the series of conferences held during the academic year 1958-1959. While presentation cannot be entirely separated from the organization of material, the concern this year deals with the organization of material—the curriculum.

Courses and curriculum construction should follow the logic of the discipline and the psychologic of the growth and development of the student. They must be so organized as to inspire, challenge, inform, and satisfy the yearning for knowledge. In balance curriculum and courses must provide for basic "information-transfer" which can be partially mechanized and "creative problem-solving" which requires master teachers. Moving learning from ideas to formulae, to outline and design, to machine and model, to process and performance becomes a major concern in the organization and presentation of knowledge. Curriculums must relate to the movement of thought from idea to action and contain the elements of self-generation and self-development. This applies equally to the liberal as well as to the technical field of education. The dichotomy which seems to exist between these two fields has actually been created by proponents of both who think, often, that the security of their fields lies in separateness when in truth their strength lies in their relatedness. This is not to indicate that there are not differences between these fields in goal and in character. It does indicate, however, that there is more unity than disunity in the various fields of knowledge. As James W. Thornton, Jr. has said:

This expansion of the clientele of higher edu-

cation requires the junior college to become especially effective, even more so than institutions with more homogeneous student groups, in designing college programs to provide a common, unifying, enriching education for all of its students.

Search for this commonality and core is difficult but where it can be achieved it will strengthen the technical aspects of the liberal fields and the liberal aspects of the technical fields. It will help to remove the danger now rampant in so many institutions of unnecessary fragmentation. Catalog prose and recruitment rhetoric should not be the criteria for the organization of knowledge. Liberal arts with options should exist along in all their glory, dignity, and bold type. Meaningless descriptions of pre-Dent, pre-Med, pre-Law, should be relegated to the fine print descriptions of the fields.

In the selection and organization of materials the faculty of each institution should become in reality a community of teachers and scholars, pooling their knowledge and resources to achieve the best possible ordering of human thought. Selection of material should have regard for the background and previous preparation of teacher and student alike. It should consider the future demands of the fields and of society. The organization of the course and curriculum material must implement the goals and objectives of the institution which in turn must harmonize with the societal expectations of higher education in general. The curriculum is the material out of which the institution is made. It is organized and distilled experience. It is the life essence offered to the students. Curriculum development, therefore, relates directly to the commitment of the college. This, in turn, relates to the commitment of the college to higher edu-

cation and society. In the case of public institutions, there is little question of the responsibility of such commitment. The philosophy of the college, its place in higher education, becomes, therefore, the framework against which the curriculum is designed. Faculty self-study for accrediting purposes brings the philosophy of the institution and its goals and objectives under continuing review. Evaluation by accrediting teams of peers, constant and continuing evaluation by faculty, students, and administration relates the curriculum to the goals and objectives and gives judgment on whether or not the curriculum is meeting the changing needs of society as charged to the institution.

The curriculum offered must include the fundamentals of the discipline and fields demanded of it by the profession, by the needs of society, and by the educational levels. These fundamentals should be minimum. They should be the relatively unchanging basics of the field necessary for the understanding of and the continuing growth in it. The curriculum should include the basic proficiencies and processes permitting testing, applying, exploring, and experimentation in the field. Each curriculum must nurture the seeds of growth.

The best selection and organization of programs of living and learning require deep understanding in three areas:

1. Understanding how to select what material and why.
2. Understanding how the knowledge of that material can be used, appreciated, and enjoyed.
3. Understanding how to measure the effectiveness of the organization and presentation of the material.

Implementation of this understanding

involves three levels of organization:

1. Organization of the learning needs into curriculums.
2. Organization of knowledge into courses within each curriculum.
3. Organization of material into effective class presentation.

The tyranny of time, space and cost requires selection and arrangement of knowledge. Priorities must be established. Yet while the organization and presentation limit the material and experience to meet practical considerations, both must contain the dynamic elements that turn the human reactor critical for the rest of its life powering a love of learning and of excellence. The curriculum, technical and liberal, must include the knowledge of basic symbols—the symbols of personal and impersonal relationships, the tools of personal and impersonal relationships, the “symbol-skills” and the “tool-skills” in understanding, appreciation and evaluation of life processes. Both liberal and technical fields should contain an understanding not alone of surface application but of the basic dynamics of application. In effect, in the translation of thought into action, the curriculum should be so organized that it is characterized by the imitative, the creative, the critical, the sensitive. At its level it should provide a mastery of knowledge and use. The knowledge should find active expression in thinking, speaking, writing, feeling, performing, creating. Most of all, the college, the curriculum, the class should provide the atmosphere and venue that create the desired attitudes of the educated person.

Today you represent one of the 31 conferences involving the facilities of the 25 community colleges of New York as it makes a massive approach toward the problem of the more effective organization of knowledge. Curriculum development should be in the hands of those who teach. The traditional organization of knowledge in the traditional disciplines has much to recommend it. It has been tried by test and time. Yet if ever this should blind us to new organizations, new selections, new groupings of courses and curriculums, our offerings would lose their life-giving qualities. Out of your teaching, your thinking, your experimentation, your writing, this year and next, combined with a comprehensive status study of the curriculum of the two-year institutions, should come a blueprint as exciting as the blueprint of the new directions which higher education has made for our state and nation.

Here, then, for us, can be a new beginning but built solidly on the best of the old. Here are the new frontiers. Within these walls are the launching pads of the next generation and the power and engines to propel it. Its system of guidance, its point of direction, its conquest of new worlds are in your hands. To these new frontiers of space of the mind, the soul, and the universe, the organization of knowledge should be directed. In the colleges, the curriculums, the courses, the classes, you are the launchers of the new world. May these new frontiers open our eyes to a new world of peace, prosperity, and the unfettered pursuit of knowledge.

Business Teacher Preparation—California Style!

RICHARD S. PERRY

"CALIFORNIA junior colleges—here we come." The song is similar to that of the unemployed who streamed across California's borders during the '30's, but the lyrics are quite different and the challenge even greater. In the '60's the goal is to provide post-high school education for youth which will prepare them for their future role as good citizens.

By now it is common knowledge among junior college educators that California is attempting to meet this challenge by effecting its Master Plan of Higher Education. This plan has designated the junior college to assume the responsibility of educating the mass of lower-division students who wish to matriculate beyond the high school. As one part of the tripartite Master Plan, the junior colleges have continued to enlarge existing facilities, build new campuses, and urge the preparation of more teachers to serve on this level. But these activities have been going on since early 1910. Only in recent years, however, have teacher preparation institutions become concerned with the training of teachers for the junior college level. This concern, particularly of business teacher-educators, eventually culminated in a 1960 statewide Conference on the Recruitment and Preparation of Business Teachers for Junior College. A major por-

tion of the Conference dealt with the presentation of the study discussed on the following pages.

STARTING POINT—THE STUDENT

As is the case of all endeavor in a democracy, the student, complete with his problems, occupies the attention of the junior college educator. At present, and in all probability for the next 15 years, the major problem of junior college students who continue on to state colleges and/or universities (the remaining parts of the tripartite system) will be to qualify for transfer, and once at the senior institution, to succeed scholastically. The raising of scholastic standards has helped the student focus his eye on the task. But the primary catalyst of the learning process is the competent teacher—one who has a strong foundation in subject matter and who is thoroughly familiar with the purposes, aims, and methods of the junior college. Thus, business teacher preparation institutions of this state suddenly realized that they had not devoted enough time and attention to the increasing number of teachers who serve the junior college student.

WHO KNOWS BEST?

To confirm or reject the suspicion relative to inadequate preparation, this researcher in cooperation with the Office of Relations with Schools, University of California, Los Angeles, sent 51 questionnaires to chairmen of business, economics, and

RICHARD S. PERRY is Chairman of the Department of Office Administration and Business Education, San Fernando Valley State College, California.

education departments in California public and private four-year colleges. Thirty-two (62 per cent) completed questionnaires were returned, and only 19 (59 per cent) reported that they prepared business teachers. Of those institutions not returning questionnaires, only three have teacher preparation programs in business.

The questionnaires were designed to ferret out information about four phases of the program: credentialing procedures, recruitment and selection, counseling and programming, and postgraduate study. The findings of this investigation are revealing, interesting, and disappointing.

CREDENTIALS INADEQUATE— INTENTIONS GOOD

An important part of the questionnaire dealt with credentialing procedures in vogue at the colleges.

Preparation for Grades 7-12

For majors in business or economics, 18 of the colleges provide programs leading to the general secondary credential and nine offer programs leading to the junior college credential.¹ During the 1958-59 school year, these colleges recommended 110 students for the general secondary credential—business major but only 13 students for the junior college credential—business or economics major. Considering that 65 junior colleges now employ business and economics teachers, these data reveal a serious dearth of prepara-

¹ General Secondary Credential permits holder to teach in both major and minor subject areas in grades 7-14, inclusive. Junior College Credential requires both bachelor's and master's degrees in the same subject field. Holder can teach only at the junior college level.

tion of teachers for the junior college. The figures would be about the same for other subject areas.

More significant though is the fact that subject matter preparation beyond the bachelor's degree consisted of only six units of graduate course work for the 91 per cent who prepared to teach by obtaining the general secondary credential. The remaining 24 units beyond the bachelor's degree, as required by the credential, consisted of professional courses in education.² This may mean that many of the business teachers who serve on the junior college level have no more background in the subjects they teach than their colleagues on the high school level and, perhaps worse, only slightly more knowledge of the subject than the students they teach.

Changes Forthcoming

The situation is not so bleak as the statistics indicate. Seventeen of the colleges have already adopted measures to increase the number of teacher candidates for the junior college. These measures include more publicity, frequent guest speakers from junior colleges, annual conferences, and expansion of graduate course offerings. Further, most of the respondents made recommendations for changing the requirements for prospective junior college business teachers, but there was no uniformity in the suggestions. One immediate suggestion, though not offered by any of the respondents, is to limit the general secondary credential to grades 7-12 and to require that all persons teaching in the junior college have the junior college

² General Secondary Credential requires a bachelor's degree plus 30 units.

credential. Senate Bill 57, recently passed by the California legislature, includes this provision.

Additional proposed changes in the credentialing procedures, involving greater emphasis on advanced study, represent only small steps toward overall improvement of the teacher preparation program. In fact, stiffer requirements may serve only to discourage the prospects. A program without students is worse than no program; hence, recruitment and selection become an important part of a successful teacher preparation program.

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION— WHOSE RESPONSIBILITY?

The responsibility for recruitment of junior college teachers, according to the findings, rested with specific departments at only half of the reporting institutions. These departments were education, business education, economics, or a combination of business administration, business education and education. In the other half of the colleges, no particular individual, school, or department was charged with this responsibility. As is the case of credentialing procedures, however, improvements are on the horizon. Nearly all the institutions reported that they used or intended to use one or more media to inform students of opportunities on the junior college level. Special counseling programs are by far the most popular, with 18 schools utilizing this medium. Other media employed in the following order of frequency were: announcements on bulletin board; open meetings and conferences; and announcements in the college newspaper.

The selection program for admission to

graduate study included satisfactory screening devices, especially in the case of the master's degree program. These included the interview, undergraduate grade point average, and graduate record examination. Other devices, such as the Scholastic College Aptitude Test, a cultural examination, the Princeton Graduate Test, and an English proficiency test, are used by some, but not all, of the institutions. None of the institutions reported the use of any device for predicting success as a teacher.

Complementary to the responsibility for recruitment is that for programming. Yet the findings of this study show no corresponding relationship between the two responsibilities.

COOPERATIVE COUNSELING AND PROGRAMMING

It is apparent that counseling and programming responsibilities are shared cooperatively and satisfactorily by business administration, business education, education and economics.

High School Predominates

The counseling is directed toward the general secondary credential rather than the junior college credential. The reasons given for such action seem justifiable because the general secondary credential offers a greater number of placement opportunities to the holder and increased flexibility of job assignment to the administrator.

Maturity Versus Knowledge

The representatives of three colleges perhaps disclosed the underlying reason for counseling the student toward the gen-

eral secondary credential by stating that the junior college credential was recommended for older and more mature students. It thus seems that youth and maturity rather than the amount of advanced preparation in subject matter may be the guiding factor in the counseling procedure. Whether or not this approach is realistic is certainly debatable when one considers that the only criterion for service on the four-year college level is the advanced degree. Further evidence of the use of the maturity factor is revealed by the fact that the majority of junior college teachers in California have had teaching experience on the high school level. Only a few college professors on the four-year level, however, have taught in high school prior to their college service. The traditional evolution of the junior college from the high school undoubtedly accounts for the establishment of the high school apprenticeship period as a prerequisite to teaching on the junior college level. If such pre-service experience makes for a better junior college teacher, the four-year colleges should take heed and set up similar requirements. If not, the junior college administrators should break with tradition, demand competency based on advanced preparation in subject matter, and let maturity develop on the job.

Aside from the philosophy behind the counseling, the actual programming seems to vary in terms of post graduate units required for the completion of the credential, despite only a 30-unit requirement imposed by the State Department of Education.

Requirements Vary

The question was raised regarding unit

requirements because a college-imposed time barrier makes the credential programs less attractive to business students than a business career with more immediate rewards. Sixty-three per cent of the colleges require 30 units, but the range for all colleges extended to 40 units.

At 10 institutions, both the master's degree in education and the general secondary credential can be obtained by completing 30 units beyond the bachelor's degree. The nine other colleges reported that efforts are being made to reduce the unit requirements by combining some courses, eliminating others, and introducing the professional education courses during the undergraduate years. Earlier counseling and careful program planning could shorten the time required to obtain the general credential and the master's degree in education, thus enabling the student to comply more closely with the minimum postgraduate requirements.

Considerable variation likewise exists among the colleges relative to the post graduate unit requirement for the combination master's degree in the subject field and the junior college credential. The range is 40 to 55 units, with only three institutions reporting that both the credential and master's degree could be obtained within one calendar year after graduation.

Of more concern is the fact that only two colleges have made any attempts to reduce the required number of units or to reduce the graduate load by introducing professional education courses during the undergraduate years. Again, earlier counseling and careful program planning can reduce the postgraduate program to one year.

SPECIALIZATION—DEPTH OR BREADTH?

The question of depth versus breadth in the graduate program pertains to the amount of elective credit allowed by the department offering the advanced degree.

Master's of Education/Business

In 14 of the 19 colleges, the master's degree in education provides for electives outside the usual courses in education. But none of the institutions permits a student to elect courses in education as part of the master's degree program in business, and only one institution indicated that business education was one of the areas of specialization in the master's degree program in business. Since the schools and divisions of business do not permit any electives outside of business, it is obvious that teacher preparation is not at present an objective of the master's program in business administration. If business students who are preparing to teach were given more latitude in the election of education courses, there is no doubt that more would pursue the master's degree in business.

Doctor of Education/Philosophy

Of the four institutions offering the Ed.D., three permit some specialization outside of education; the fourth is studying this possibility. The two institutions offering the Ph.D. in education permit candidates to take courses outside the School of Education; and of the two institutions offering the Ph.D. in business, one allows the candidate to elect some professional courses in higher education. The one institution offering the Doctor of Business Administration degree provides ample opportunity for specialization in

education. Thus, the doctoral programs allow much greater latitude in selecting course work according to the students' needs than do the master's programs.

COMPATIBILITY OF PHILOSOPHY,
GOAL, AND TIME

In retrospect, there seems to be a degree of conflict between the essential elements of a successful teacher preparation program for junior college business teachers. They need a substantive knowledge of what is taught, the ability to teach, plus a belief in the philosophy and basic purposes of the junior college. The conflict occurs when the prospective teacher appears on the scene and compounds the problem by imposing the time element. This latter element forces the student to choose between the general secondary credential (which does not provide specific preparations for the junior college) and the junior college credential (which provides the subject matter foundation and the background in higher education). Since the general secondary credential requires less time and greater opportunities for employment, the choice is obvious.

In order to foster enrollments in a plan specifically oriented for junior college teaching, these elements must be reevaluated and restructured within a five or five and a half year program. Important aspects in the adoption of a plan which requires less as well as sufficient time for completion include:

1. Earlier detection of the student interested in pursuing a career in junior college teaching.
2. Careful counseling and programming during the undergraduate years to assure that time is not wasted.

3. Completion of the teaching major during both the undergraduate and graduate years.
4. Completion of most of the requirements for a teaching minor during the undergraduate years.
5. Completion of some of the professional courses in education during the postgraduate years.
6. Provision for electives in the master's degree program in business which would make it possible to finish the required professional courses in education during the postgraduate period.

For those who wish to obtain further

graduate preparation, it is suggested that the doctoral programs include:

1. Additional provisions for electives in the Ed.D. and Ph.D. programs in education which would make it possible to take upper division and graduate courses in business administration and business education.
2. Additional provisions for electives in the Ph.D. and D.B.A. programs in business administration which would make it possible to take professional courses in junior college education and administration.

Academic Probation and Suspension Practices in Public Junior Colleges

THOMAS C. DULA AND RAYMOND E. SCHULTZ

THIS ARTICLE presents the findings of an investigation of public junior college academic probation and suspension practices. Two factors caused the writers to believe that such an undertaking would constitute a service to these institutions. First was the observation, supported by an inquiry which Price¹ made in California, that junior colleges have a wide divergence of practice in their academic probation and suspension practices. Second was the absence of evidence in the professional literature that any effort had been made to study this matter.

It was felt that the findings of this investigation would enable an institution to assess its probation and suspension regulations in terms of the practices employed in similar types of institutions and also that the findings might indicate the extent to which such regulations are attaining their intended objectives. Finally, and more important, was to determine wheth-

er or not evidence might be uncovered which would bring into question the soundness of the assumptions underlying these practices.

PROCEDURE

While nationwide in scope, the investigation was limited to locally supported and controlled public junior colleges which possessed regional accreditation in order to obtain a group of institutions which were reasonably homogeneous in nature and which possessed authority to establish their own regulations. Using these criteria and the 1959 *Junior College Directory* prepared by the American Association of Junior Colleges provided 162 institutions, 149 of which constituted the working sample. Only four of the original 162 failed to respond to the request to participate. The other nine were found to be unable to for various reasons. The participating group represents institutions in every section of the United States with enrollments ranging from less than 100 to over 5,000.

Actually two investigations were conducted: the first consisted of collecting and classifying the probation and suspension practices of participating institutions; the second comprised an effort to assess the effectiveness of such regulations on students subjected to them in a sampling of the institutions. Due to the limits of

¹ An unpublished study by Hugh G. Price, "California Public Junior College Policy on Retention of Students," California State Department of Education.

Former Dean of Admissions of St. Petersburg Junior College, THOMAS C. DULA is the Research and Reports Officer of the Florida State Board of Control, Tallahassee.

RAYMOND E. SCHULTZ is Professor of Higher Education, Florida State University. Formerly he was co-director of the Southeastern Junior College Leadership Program under a grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

space, the findings of only the first phase of the investigation are presented here. A second article will focus on findings of the second phase.

THE SURVEY AND CLASSIFICATION OF PROBATION AND SUSPENSION PRACTICES

This survey was conducted by use of an inventory form which was sent to each junior college president with the request that it be completed by the person on his staff who normally administers probation and suspension regulations. Items included in the inventory were developed by inspecting the academic regulations stated in the bulletins and catalogs of a sampling of participating institutions.

With the inventory data in hand, a system of classification was developed by identifying three reference points or positions around which the policies seemed to cluster and assigning each institution to the category which it most closely approximated. The reader needs to remember that these classifications represent points on a continuum and not discrete categories. Following is the classification scheme developed:

A. *Highly restrictive regulations*—representing institutions whose regulations take on the following characteristics:

1. Use of probation policies which require that a student be placed on probation when he does not earn a *C* average for a semester's work or for deficiency of entrance requirements. Such probation is imposed for one semester and failure to earn a *C* average during this semester leads to at least one-semester suspension.
2. Suspension is enforced for a period of one semester (summer not considered a semester) and failure to earn a *C* average during a probation semester following the suspension is cause for dismissal.

B. *Moderately restrictive regulations*—representing institutions whose regulations take on the following characteristics:

1. Probation is characterized by the possibility that it may be continued for more than one semester if the situation warrants. The required grade average during the probation period may be less than *C* in order for the student to be cleared of academic probation.
2. Suspension is not automatic and continued probation is possible.

C. *Liberal regulations*—representing institutions whose regulations take on the following characteristic:

1. Probation is individually determined and adjustment of the program to meet the needs of the student is, or may be, substituted for probation.
2. Suspension is imposed only when the institution is relatively certain it can be of no further assistance to a student.

The distribution of institutions when this classification procedure was employed revealed that public junior colleges definitely tend to have liberal probation and suspension regulations. Of the 149 institutions included in this phase of the study, 63 (45 per cent) had regulations which placed them in the *liberal* category, the policies of another 51 (35 per cent) placed them in the *moderately restrictive* category, and only 35 (24 per cent) employed policies which placed them in the *highly restrictive* category. The reader needs to remember, however, that while institutions were assigned to the category which their policies most nearly reflected, virtually every institution had specific regulations which were characteristic of the other two classification categories.

As an aid to junior college officials and faculty who wish to assess their academic regulations in terms of the provisions employed by other such institutions, the following findings of the investigation are presented.

1. *Who administers probation and suspension regulations?* More of these public junior colleges place this responsibility on the registrar than on any other staff member or committee, though a wide divergence of practice exists. No meaningful differences were found among institutions of the three classification categories.

The following summary shows where the responsibility for their administration was reported to reside.

Official or Group	No. of Institutions	Per Cent of Institutions
Registrar	50	33.6
Dean of Students	31	20.8
Academic Dean or Dean of the College	18	12.0
Committee	22	14.8
Other	27	18.1
No response	1	.6
Total	149	100 per cent

2. *When is a student placed on probation?* Information was solicited relative to probation policies for three different groups of students; namely, (a) entering freshmen, (b) transfer students, and (c) students enrolled in the institution.

(a) *Entering freshmen.* Nearly all of these institutions, 73 per cent, place entering freshmen on probation under certain conditions. As might be expected, their distribution is related to classification categories. One-third of the institutions whose policies placed them in the liberal category reported that no entering freshman is placed on probation, compared to 17 per cent for the *highly restricted* category who subject no entering freshmen to probation.

The data collected by this investigation fail to pinpoint any predominant reasons

for placing entering freshmen on probation. Probably more significant are some of the factors investigated which are not employed for this purpose. Virtually none of these institutions places an entering freshman on probation because he lacks specific high school courses. Failure to possess a high school diploma and unsatisfactory high school grades, while the two most frequently reported reasons for such action, are each employed in only 13 per cent of all the institutions.

(b) *Transfer students.* Nearly all, 142 of the 149 institutions, indicated they have policies which place entering transfer students on probation. A variety of such policies were identified with no single policy or combination of policies predominating. One comparison which stands out as differentiating institutions in the *highly restrictive* category from those in the *moderately restrictive* and *liberal* group relates to placing an entering transfer student on probation if his grade average for all previous work is less than C. Only 18 institutions employed this policy as a single criterion for a transfer student's being placed on probation, and 10 of these were institutions in the *highly restrictive* category, which represents 29 per cent of the 35 institutions in that group.

The second most frequently reported reason for placing an entering transfer student on probation was that the student was on probation or had been suspended at the institution from which he matriculated. Interestingly, transfers from institutions which fail to possess regional accreditation are placed on probation at only two of the institutions.

(c) *Students enrolled in the institution.* Inasmuch as this factor was used as a classification criterion, the differences

among the three categories here stand out. To illustrate, while a total of 20 institutions from the entire group (13 per cent) place a student on probation when he fails to maintain a *C* average the preceding term, 14 of these institutions are of the *highly restrictive* category. This represents 40 per cent of that category. By contrast, none of the institutions in this *highly restrictive* category reportedly base probation on the individual consideration and merits of a student's record compared to 10 of the *liberal* category institutions. Another 22 (35 per cent) of the institutions in this *liberal* category and 10 in the *moderately restrictive* category reported that they place a student on probation when his grade average falls below the half-way point between *C* and *D*.

As indicated in the preceding paragraph, not all of these institutions employ a specified grade average or the passing of some certain proportion of work attempted as a single condition for probation. Of those that do, a wide variation exists in the severity of the requirement as shown by the following summary.

Requirement (2.0 equivalent to <i>C</i>)	Number of Insti- tutions	Per cent of total (<i>N</i> = 149)
2.0	20	13
1.75	7	5
1.6	6	4
1.5	32	21
Earn 9 semester hours of credit	11	7
2.0 in all work completed	9	6
Pass half of the work attempted	7	5
	93	61

3. *What requirements must a student on probation meet to be returned to good standing?* Since this question relates directly to the classification criteria, the differences among the three categories would expectedly be sharp. However, these differences extend beyond those imposed by the criterion applied. Whereas the requirement of a *C* average during the first enrollment following probation constituted a selection criterion of the *highly restrictive institutions*, 40 per cent of that group go beyond this. They put such a student "under the gun" to the extent of requiring him to earn a grade point average during the first semester following probation that will bring his overall grade average to *C*. This requires him to earn during that semester a higher grade average than demanded of students not in academic difficulty. By contrast, virtually none of the *liberal* category institutions require that a student on probation meet either of these grade point requirements during his first semester in attendance after being placed on probation. One-third of the institutions in that group require such a student to earn a 1.5 grade point average ($2.0 = C$) to remove his probation, and another one-third of them have no specific grade point average but judge the student individually, reviewing his record for evidence of acceptable performance. The following summary shows the distribution of institutions included in this study which require a student on probation to earn a specified grade point average in order to return to good standing.

Requirement (2.0 equivalent to C)	Number of Insti- tutions (N = 149)	Per cent of total
2.0 overall average	19	13
2.0 on semester's work	33	22
1.75 on semester's work	7	5
1.50 on semester's work	24	16
Pass 9 semester hours	5	3
	88	59

4. *Under what conditions is a student subjected to academic suspension?* As would be expected, failure to meet probation requirements constitutes the principal grounds for academic suspension. It is highly significant, however, that only 35 per cent of all these institutions suspend a student who fails to remove his probation during the first semester in which he enrolls thereafter. The alternatives are so varied and used in such combinations as to preclude a meaningful description, but they most often consist of continuing the student on probation for one additional semester with some modification of the program of studies.

5. *Under what conditions may a student suspended for academic reasons be re-enrolled?* The information collected which relates to this point indicates that nearly all of the institutions included have provisions for "a second chance." In other words, suspension and dismissal are not synonymous terms as applied by them. The summary which follows shows, however, that the conditions under which a suspended student may return shifts from an emphasis on set requirements for institutions with highly and moderately restrictive regulations to individualized decisions for the *liberal* group.

Condition for Re-Enrollment	Highly Restrictive	Moderately Restrictive	Liberal
1. Remaining out of college one term (excluding summer)	29%	30%	11%
2. Favorable action on petition	20	10	11
3. Judged ready to succeed by the college	9	4	24
4. Combination of 1 and 2	20	31	17
5. Other combinations and provisions	23	26	36

An interesting sidelight was brought out in the written responses relating to this item. Fifteen institutions reported that a student under suspension can earn the opportunity to re-enroll, presumably as a full-time student, when he has brought up his grade average in another institution or in the institution's evening division.

Regulations relating to dismissal or permanent suspension for academic reasons differ greatly between the *highly restrictive* and *liberal* category institutions. Whereas one-fourth of the former group dismisses a student who fails to earn a C average in work attempted during a semester in which he is on probation, none of the *liberal* institutions reported having such a policy. An even more significant indication of differences in philosophy between institutions in the two groups is the fact that 19 institutions (30 per cent) of those in the *liberal* group reported that they have no academic dismissal, whereas only three (nine per cent) in the *highly restrictive* category reported that they follow this practice.

SUMMARY

It is evident that the conditions found by Price in his California study are nationwide. While, as a group, the academic probation and suspension practices of junction colleges can be characterized as somewhat liberal, wide variations exist among and within institutions. Consequently,

findings here suggest inconsistency in the philosophical assumptions underlying these regulations not only among institutions but within given institutions. This raises a host of questions which will be pointed up, and partially answered, by the evidence presented in a subsequent article treating the findings of the second phase of this investigation.

This I Tried and Found Helpful**A Different Approach to Grammar in Business English**

Carl E. Walker, St. Mary's Seminary Junior College, St. Mary's City, Maryland

As every instructor in Business English (Business Correspondence, Business Letter-Writing, Business Communication) is likely to discover, students still do not have an adequate command of English grammar. If English teachers in grade school, high school, and junior college have been unable to teach them, will yet another presentation of correct usage of noun, pronoun, and all the rest be fruitful? It hardly seems likely. A different approach seems to be called for.

One such approach was to give, once a week, a set of "Grammar Refreshers," consisting of 20 sentences, a few of which contained no errors and others which contained violations of good grammar usage. These sentences had no clues as to the location of the errors, and some sentences contained more than one error per sentence.

These lessons were corrected by the students without any advance preparation.

The instructor then marked each sentence as correct or incorrect but did not grade or correct the sentences. He returned them to the students, together with a "key" showing the page or pages in the text that gave information about the principle illustrated in the sentences, including the correct ones.

After the students had had an opportunity to study the sentences and the text references, the instructor went over the sentences with them, explaining principles more fully whenever necessary. This was done on the same day that the next group of "Grammar Refreshers" was presented.

The approach was very flexible. Principles that were frequently missed could be presented again and again. Tests were simply a new set of sentences, chosen to test mastery of the principles studied during the grading period.

Line of Responsibility—An Administrative Necessity

STUART E. MARSEE

A SMALL ORGANIZATION in which everyone knows and respects one another can exist on verbal understanding and with a limited number of controls and written procedures. Expansion of size in any operation, whether it be business, government, church, community, or educational institutions, requires that some formalization of policy be established. Obviously, in an expanding society it is to be expected that the above mentioned organizations and others will become more numerous and increasingly larger.

Frustrating as it is, loss of some independence of movement is apt to result in the adoption of formalized procedure, and it is very important that the development of such procedures not be carried to extremes. While a procedural book is helpful, it is but a guide to management, and it certainly cannot be a substitute for the specific judgment of the administrator. Too often the administrator believes that he must "live by the book," not realizing that no set of rules is so perfect that it cannot be improved, amended, or adjusted for unusual circumstances.

Every college president would like to believe that his is the "open door" policy. He knows that to be unresponsive to the feeling of the college staff will ultimately stifle initiative and will contribute to low

morale of the faculty and the students. On the other hand, to fail to support the administrative staff by not delegating authority commensurate with responsibility will ultimately result in the deterioration and waste of an administrative staff.

In his fondest dream the president likes to observe himself as the administrative leader who can fairly evaluate the unsolved conflict between the misunderstood but over-sensitive faculty member and the ever-faithful but bungling administrator. By the wisdom of clarifying the static of poor communication and pulling invisible strings, no one ever loses face!

It isn't this simple! The fact remains that the president must make himself available to the instructor and yet by every possible means be sure that the administrator has not been by-passed. The solution should be channeled back to be corrected as close as possible to the source of friction and by those directly involved.

In order to develop understanding regarding relationships between employees, it is advisable to develop an administrative chart and perhaps even more important, to define administrative relationships. The president of El Camino College reports to a board of trustees. Directly under the supervision of the president are the directors of instruction, student personnel and business who, in line authority, give leadership to the assistant directors of these respective divisions. All other positions which involve

STUART E. MARSEE is President and District Superintendent of the El Camino Junior College District, El Camino College, California.

direct leadership are considered staff functions and give supervisory leadership within the scope of their service areas.

In clarifying lines of authority or communication every effort is made to preserve the freest possible interchange of ideas. It is hoped that this is accomplished by recognizing that the administration with the advisory assistance of the appropriate committee and/or committees shall have specific responsibility for the pattern and sequence of the educational program. Shared participation in program development by the administrator and the faculty, as well as the classified employee and the students, when germane to the problem, seems to bring the highest level of result and greatest acceptance of the plan.

When possible, no employee should report to more than one administrator, and his job description should not only define the function of his position but should

also specifically state his immediate superior. Lines of communication should be drawn so that successive steps in appeal are established in the event there is disagreement between the employee and his immediate superior. Personality conflicts and honest differences of opinion are to be expected, particularly when both parties are thinking. An appeal made in good faith must be accepted as a positive indication of democratic administration rather than a rift in the ranks.

Following through with all of the procedures and good intentions in the world will, at best, only improve personnel relations. Management is an art which must constantly be refined but which never will become a science. Nothing could be more devastating, even if possible, to the joy of living than to reduce all solution of individual differences to a mathematical equation framed in a formal policy.

Junior College Administrators' Philosophies Relative to Research and Publications of Faculty Members

BILL G. RAINEY

THERE ARE many conflicting opinions relative to professional writing and research at the collegiate level. Some administrators believe in the doctrine of "publish or perish," others mildly encourage research and writing activities, while still others, it would seem, frown at the very mention of the words. As a general rule, however, most teachers subscribe to the belief that university and senior college teachers must do some research and professional writing to secure, retain, or gain promotions in their jobs and that research and writing are not required at the junior college level.

Little organized effort has ever been made to determine how junior college administrators feel about research; therefore, the writer has, on a small scale, and with a relatively small sample, endeavored to determine the general attitude of junior college administrators in this area.

Medsker, in referring to junior college teachers, makes the statement that "teachers are said to be recognized for their performance in the classroom and are not held responsible for research and publication as a basis for promotion,"¹ and says

¹ Leland L. Medsker, *The Junior College, Progress and Prospect* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960), p. 170.

BILL G. RAINEY is Head of the Department of Business Administration, Murray State College, Tishomingo, Oklahoma.

further that teachers are "given neither time nor credit for research and publication activities."²

In an effort to shed more light on exactly what role research and professional writing play at the junior college level, the writer polled, through a questionnaire, 58 junior college presidents and deans. As will be noted from a perusal of the participating colleges, this sampling covers institutions in 24 states.

TABLE I
Professional Writing and Its Relation to Employment, Salary, and Promotion of Junior College Faculty Members, as Reported by Fifty-eight College Administrators

Fact	Number of Administrators Reporting This Fact
Writing affects employment and promotion	24
Writing does not affect promotion and employment	34
Writing has a positive effect on salary	12
Writing has no effect on salary	46

Table I reveals that more attention is paid to professional writing by junior college administrators than is normally thought by a large number of teachers. Often interest in professional writing and research is not indicated as a requirement by administrators but rates special con-

² *Ibid.*, p. 189.

sideration when they find it in a prospective teacher. The above table shows that 24 of 58 administrators, or 41.4 per cent, consider professional writing a criterion when hiring or promoting teachers, while 46, or 58.6 per cent, do not consider it.

Regarding salary, 12 administrators, or 20.7 per cent, reported that professional writing had a positive effect on salary, whereas 46, or 79.3 per cent, indicated it had no effect. Some of the administrators reported they would like to pay more to those who engage in writing but under their particular regulations they could not.

Typical comments are as follows:

Marvin C. Knudson, President, Pueblo (Colo.) College—The nature of junior colleges being what it is and our predisposition to think of them as institutions that will help students learn has caused us to put our greatest emphasis on teaching ability when we seek new teachers. We have not, up to this point, stressed writing ability nor research ability as prerequisites for a teaching position on our staff . . . we do encourage faculty members to write when they have something to contribute that comes to our attention, but we do not specifically recognize such activities by pay raises, promotions, etc. It is our feeling that the reward should be intrinsic.

Peter Masiko, Jr., Dean, Chicago (Ill.) Junior College—We encourage writing and use it to evaluate new appointments to the staff. Writing and other evidence of professional growth and development are considered in making recommendations for permanent positions.

Harry Bard, Dean, Baltimore (Md.) Junior College—We at the Baltimore Junior College believe that professional writing is significant particularly as it relates to action research in terms of classroom needs . . . we do consider a person's professional writing as one of many factors when adding personnel.

Stuart M. White, President, Fresno City (Calif.) College—We do not necessarily

believe that the prime qualification for a good instructor is that he or she must have written articles or textbooks. In selecting a staff we always look for the applicant with adequate depth in subject matter and competent teaching ability . . . it has been our experience that professional writing did not necessarily make the best instructor.

James C. Browning, Dean, Port Huron (Mich.) Junior College—Professional writing is very desirable. It helps to keep faculty abreast of research in their fields and encourages them to experiment.

Kenneth MacKay, President, Union Junior College (N.J.)—Professional writing should be encouraged and should be considered as a factor in faculty promotion. We spell out professional writing as one of the factors in our own promotional system . . . publications are considered a factor in our faculty promotion and salary increases along with the other factors of classroom effectiveness, attitude of cooperation, community service and research.

Edward Y. Blewett, President, Westbrook Junior College (Maine)—Any professional writing done by a junior college faculty member can be interpreted, I think, as a reflection of his enthusiasm for his subject matter. An enthusiastic teacher is usually a more effective teacher. . . .

Edwin T. Ingles, Dean, Modesto Junior College (Calif.)—While I do not feel that every instructor should be expected to do professional writing, I do feel that a certain amount of pressure from the administration to do professional writing is desirable. We do not exert such pressure here; as a matter of fact, many of my colleagues feel that this is not a necessity for a junior college teacher. However, I disagree. I feel that everyone should feel compelled to do some sharing of his experiences with his professional colleagues. I think this does add a great deal to the teaching profession and might have the result of benefiting instruction in general.

James L. Taylor, Dean, Cameron College (Okla.)—On the junior college level I would hope that most research or writings would be in the form of institutional studies

that would reflect consideration of the institution that the individual is employed by . . . we give no salary consideration for writing.

Eugene B. Chaffee, President, Boise Junior College (Idaho)—Certainly if a man has done professional writing and he has the other faculties that are needed for a junior college teacher, that is a real asset . . . to sum it up, professional writing can be definitely an asset to a college instructor who knows how to use it as a sideline, but not the main show.

Harold H. Stephenson, President, Sacramento City College (Calif.)—I consider professional writing a very important part of an educated individual. Yet, at the junior college level, I would not want to judge an instructor for employment or promotional purposes on his writings. I believe the most important responsibility of a faculty member on the two-year college level is to be a master teacher. In most instances, I have found that the master teachers are also doing some professional writing.

I. John Kreppick, Dean, Orange County (N.Y.) Community College—We do not attach great significance to a faculty member who cites writing as his outstanding qualification. The ability to write is not the requirement in employment or in promotion. Our success as a two-year institution is dependent primarily on teachers who are creative, dynamic, and who dedicate themselves to their tasks beyond the normal demands of daily routine. Professional writing is sought out as a by-product of classroom experimentation. . . .

Kenneth R. Williams, President, Central Florida Junior College—Although we would obviously encourage professional writing and all other instances of professional vigor, we do not reflect this specifically in our employment or promotion of faculty members. At the junior college level excellence in the teaching process per se is our major concern. The quantity and quality of one's professional writing does not relate significantly to excellence in classroom teaching.

A. E. Jenkins, President, Tyler (Texas)

Junior College—We are primarily interested in teaching at our college level. We neither encourage nor discourage professional writing. If it interfered with teaching we would immediately discourage it.

E. T. Dunlap, President, Eastern Oklahoma A&M College—At the junior college level, teaching and advisement are the two primary responsibilities of instructors. These responsibilities are stressed at Eastern Oklahoma A&M College rather than research and professional writing. If a good job is done in these two areas, there is not much time left for research and professional writing. Salaries are based on the academic preparation, successful teaching experience, value to the instructional and advisement program and effectiveness as a member of the staff and not on research and publication.

Miles G. Blim, Dean, Junior College of Kansas City, Missouri—I think it might be well to consider accomplishments in professional writing for promotions. It does not seem to be a feasible plan here in our school as we are part of a large public school system. . . .

Karl O. Drexel, Director, Diablo Valley College (Calif.)—While we say—and believe—that our emphasis is upon teaching rather than research, we, of course, respect the latter and professional writing. We do not seek teachers who have done such writing, but we cannot help admiring those who do. Except as professional writing is rewarded within our salary schedule, its value is subjective.

Bruce G. Carter, President, Northeastern Oklahoma A&M College—I do not consider it at all necessary for one of our faculty members to be a professional writer in order to be promoted or to receive a salary increase. I certainly wish that we might have such talent in our faculty, but because each teacher is required to teach a normal, average load, we have not stressed writing as one of the duties or responsibilities of the individual instructors.

I believe I would be glad to encourage such a faculty member to teach a somewhat lighter load, and pay him some travel ex-

penses, if he showed that he had a genuine talent and ability for his given field. However, I would say that primarily the job of a teacher in a junior college is to teach.

TABLE II

Publicity and Encouragement of Professional Writing by Fifty-eight Junior College Administrators

Fact	Number of Administrators Reporting This Fact
Writing is encouraged	35
Writing is discouraged	2
Writing is neither encouraged nor discouraged	21
Faculty writings are publicized	48
Faculty writings are not publicized	10

Table II indicates that 35 administrators (60.3 per cent) encourage faculty members to write. This becomes immediately significant when one considers that over half of the administrators think it advisable for teachers to write, even though only 41.4 per cent of them actually base, in part, their employment and promotion procedures upon this item. Only two administrators (3.4 per cent) actually discourage writing, while 21 (36.3 per cent) neither encourage nor discourage writing activities.

According to Table II, 48 (82.8 per cent) of the administrators publicize the writings of their faculty, whereas ten administrators (17.2 per cent) do not. At the junior college level this publicity usually takes the form of feature articles in the community and school newspapers, radio announcements, special bulletins, and college releases of various kinds.

TABLE III

Types of Aid Extended by Twenty-five Junior College Administrators to Faculty Members Engaged in Research and/or Professional Writing

Type of Aid Given	No. of Administrators Granting This Aid
Lighter teaching load	5
Clerical assistance	17
Expenses for travel, postage, supplies, etc.	11
Facilities and equipment	2
Leaves of absence	2
Research budget	1

Table III shows the type of aid given by 25 administrators (43.2 per cent) to faculty members engaged in research and/or professional writing. Thirty-three (56.8 per cent) of the administrators surveyed give no aid whatsoever. Several colleges give both clerical and expense assistance.

Administrators were asked approximately what per cent of their faculty had written professionally, and the range was zero to 60 per cent, with the average (mean) being 14.88 per cent. Only 12 colleges out of the 58 surveyed reported as much as 25 per cent of the faculty having written at least one article.

SIGNIFICANT POINTS

1. The sample consisted of 58 colleges located in 24 states.
2. Professional writing and research are considered by 41.4 per cent of administrators surveyed when employing and promoting.
3. Professional writing and research are considered by 20.7 per cent of administrators surveyed when granting salary raises.
4. Professional writing and research are encouraged by 60.3 per cent of administrators surveyed.
5. Professional writing and research are publicized by 82.2 per cent of administrators surveyed.

6. Professional writing and research are considered important enough by 43.2 per cent of administrators surveyed to give special assistance to furthering this activity.
7. Only 3.4 per cent of administrators surveyed actually discourage writing and research.

CONCLUSIONS

Although not an absolute requirement for a position, promotion, or normal salary increase at the junior college level, professional writing and research are, nevertheless, considered important by over 40 per cent of the administrators surveyed and play a role in employment, promotion, and/or salary. Teacher training institutions are therefore urged to emphasize this facet of education when preparing prospective junior college instructors. Special courses in research and writing methods are recommended.

COLLEGES INCLUDED IN THE SURVEY

Austin Junior College (Minnesota)
 Amarillo College (Texas)
 American River Junior College (California)
 Bakersfield College (California)
 Baltimore Junior College (Maryland)
 Bismarck Junior College (North Dakota)
 Becker Junior College (Massachusetts)
 Boise Junior College (Idaho)
 Casper Junior College (Wyoming)
 Coffeyville College (Kansas)
 Clark College (Washington)
 College of the Sequoias (California)
 Colby Junior College (New Hampshire)
 Chicago City Junior College (Illinois)
 Central Florida Junior College (Florida)
 College of San Mateo (California)

Cameron College (Oklahoma)
 Diablo Valley College (California)
 Everett Junior College (Washington)
 East Central Junior College (Mississippi)
 Eastern Arizona Junior College (Arizona)
 East Los Angeles College (California)
 Eastern Oklahoma A&M College (Oklahoma)
 Flint Junior College (Michigan)
 Fresno City College (California)
 Grand Rapids Junior College (Michigan)
 Jackson Junior College (Michigan)
 Joliet Junior College (Illinois)
 Junior College of Kansas City (Missouri)
 Kansas City Junior College (Kansas)
 Kilgore College (Texas)
 Lyons Township Junior College (Illinois)
 Murray State College (Oklahoma)
 Modesto Junior College (California)
 Manatee Junior College (Florida)
 Mason City Junior College (Iowa)
 Monterey Peninsula College (California)
 Northeast Mississippi Junior College (Mississippi)
 Northeastern Oklahoma A&M College (Oklahoma)
 Orange County Community College (New York)
 Orlando Junior College (Florida)
 Olympic College (Washington)
 Phoenix College (Arizona)
 Palm Beach Junior College (Florida)
 Port Huron Junior College (Michigan)
 Pueblo College (Colorado)
 Pensacola Junior College (Florida)
 Santa Monica City College (California)
 Santa Barbara City College (California)
 Sacramento City College (California)
 Tyler Junior College (Texas)
 Trenton Junior College (New Jersey)
 Union Junior College (New Jersey)
 Vallejo Junior College (California)
 Worcester Junior College (Massachusetts)
 Westbrook Junior College (Maine)

Relationships Between Measured and Anticipated Achievement in Reading

ROBERT L. CURRY AND HUGHIE HUGHES

FOR CENTURIES man has recognized that differences in ability exist among individuals. It has also been recognized that differences in achievement and performance are not necessarily related to the single factor of intellectual ability, although this is certainly a highly important factor. In recent years much importance has been attached to achievement in reading. Many studies have been made to determine the effect of physical, mental, and emotional factors on the success or lack of success in reading. In addition, numerous studies have measured the relationship between mental age and reading age; however, very little has been done in the area of determining how well a child is achieving in reading as compared to the level he should be achieving when factors such as age, grade, and mental ability are combined. One reason for this may be

that there has not been an objective way of determining anticipated achievement on an individual basis.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the reading grade placement scores and mental grade placement scores, between measured achievement and anticipated achievement in reading vocabulary, and between measured achievement and anticipated achievement in reading comprehension. The study was limited to sophomores in the Waco Public School System. All of the sophomores for whom sufficient data were available were classified into three intellectual ability groups: above-average, IQ's of 110 and above; average, IQ's of 90-109; and below average, IQ's of 89 and below. Table I presents a distribution of all sophomores for whom sufficient data were available.

Data obtained on the subjects consisted of the intelligence quotient (IQ), chronological age (CA) in months, identity of sex, reading grade placement score, meas-

ROBERT L. CURRY and HUGHIE HUGHES are assistant professors of education at Baylor University in Waco, Texas.

TABLE I

Distribution of Sophomores on Bases of Sex, IQ, and School Attended

Intellectual Ability	Boys			Girls			Total
	Waco High	University High	Total	Waco High	University High	Total	
Above average	79	19	98	62	10	72	170
Average	174	98	272	202	55	257	529
Below average	42	27	69	48	33	81	150
Total	135	144	439	312	98	410	849

ured grade placement score in reading comprehension, measured grade placement score in reading vocabulary, anticipated grade placement score in reading comprehension, and the anticipated grade placement score in reading vocabulary. Identity of sex, IQ, and CA were obtained from the profile of the *California Test of Mental Maturity*, (CTMM), Secondary, 1957 S-Form. The reading grade placement score and the measured grade placement score in reading comprehension and vocabulary were obtained from the *California Achievement Test* (CAT), Advanced, 1957 Form. The anticipated grade placement scores in reading comprehension and vocabulary were obtained by the use of the Anticipated Achievement Calculator.¹

In the selection of subjects for use in the study, an effort was made to minimize the possibility of bias. To accomplish this, the variables of intellectual ability and sex were held constant by matching the boys and girls on the basis of IQ. Where there was an unequal number of boys and girls having a certain IQ score, the subjects were selected by use of a table of random numbers. After the subjects were selected in respect to the variables being controlled, 640 sophomores were used in the study. Subjects selected were distributed among the three intellectual ability groups as follows: 104 in the above-average group, 422 in the average group, and

114 in the below-average group. Data obtained on these groups are presented in Table II.

Correlation coefficients were computed between the mental grade placement scores and reading grade placement scores, between measured achievement and anticipated achievement in reading comprehension, and between measured achievement and anticipated achievement in reading vocabulary for each of the intellectual ability groups and for the boys and girls separately within each intellectual ability group. In addition, correlations were computed for the same factors but with all of the subjects combined. The obtained correlations for the data are presented in Table III.

The grade placement scores obtained through measurement, by use of the CAT, indicate that the above-average and average groups are achieving well beyond actual grade placement. The below-average ability group is achieving several months below actual grade placement. However, when all subjects are combined, the mean grade placement scores in reading comprehension and vocabulary are approximately one year above actual grade placement. Also, all mean grade placement scores as measured by the CAT are above the mean anticipated achievement grade placement scores in reading comprehension and vocabulary, although some may not be up to actual grade placement.

RESULTS

From the data presented in Tables II and III a number of significant facts can be ascertained. The mean CA's for the three intellectual ability groups indicate that as the mean IQ's of the groups go down, the mean CA's show a rise. A dif-

¹ The Anticipated Achievement Calculator, published by the California Test Bureau, is a device which enables a person to interpret the CAT score of a pupil in terms of his own ability to achieve as measured by the CTMM and utilize the factors of mental ability, chronological age, and grade classification. By use of this device one can determine the anticipated achievement level for each individual.

TABLE II
Data Obtained on Sophomores Selected for the Study

	Above-average						Intellectual Ability Groups						Below-average						Total			
	Boys			Girls			Total			Average			Boys			Girls				Total		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total				
Number of Subjects	52	52	104	211	211	422	57	57	114	640												
CA in Months	186	184	185	191	186	188	196	192	194	189												
Mental Grade Placement	13.8	13.6	13.7	10.4	10.2	10.3	8.2	8.0	8.1	10.5												
IQ (Mean)	115	115	115	99.5	99.5	99.5	84.3	84.3	84.3	99.3												
Reading Grade Placement	13.6	13.0	13.3	10.9	11.2	11.1	9.3	9.3	9.3	11.1												
Measured Achievement in Reading Comprehension	13.7	13.4	13.6	11.2	11.4	11.3	9.4	9.7	9.6	11.4												
Measured Achievement in Reading Vocabulary	13.4	12.6	13.0	10.7	11.0	10.8	9.2	8.9	9.1	10.9												
Anticipated Achievement in Reading Comprehension	11.6	11.5	11.6	10.1	10.0	10.0	8.7	8.6	8.6	10.0												
Anticipated Achievement in Reading Vocabulary	11.5	11.4	11.5	10.1	9.9	10.0	8.7	8.6	8.7	10.0												

TABLE III
Correlations Obtained for the Different Intellectual Ability Groups

Correlations Computed between	Above-average			Intellectual Ability Groups			Below-average			Total
	Boys			Average			Boys			
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	
Mental GP and Reading GP Scores37	.43	.40	.37	.39	.38	.30	.35	.32	.63
Measured Achievement and Anticipated Achievement in Reading Vocabulary23	.30	.28	.28	.36	.31	.25	.15	.21	.56
Measured Achievement and Anticipated Achievement in Reading Comprehension35	.54	.44	.36	.88	.63	.24	.26	.23	.72

ference of nine months in the CA's of the above-average and the below-average groups is indicated with the below-average group being the older. Also, data indicate that within each ability group the boys show a slightly higher mean CA than the girls.

Data regarding the mean mental grade placement scores and the reading grade placement scores indicate that in the average and below-average ability groups the reading grade placement scores are higher than the mental grade placement scores, but in the above-average group the mental grade placement score is higher. Also, the mean reading grade placement score is one year above the actual grade placement score for the entire group of sophomores.

Correlations between mental grade placement scores and reading grade placement scores for the intellectual ability groups and for the sub-groups within are between .30 and .43. These correlation coefficients indicate that a definite but small relationship exists between mental grade placement and reading grade placement. When all of the sophomores are combined, a coefficient of .63 is found which indicates a substantial relationship between mental and reading grade placement scores.

In the area of reading vocabulary, the correlations between measured achievement and anticipated achievement range from .15 to .36 which indicates that low, but definite, relationships exist. However, the coefficient of .56 for all of the subjects combined indicates a substantial relationship between measured and anticipated achievement in reading vocabulary.

In reading comprehension, the correlations between measured and anticipated

achievement are rather low for most of the groups. There are three exceptions which indicate rather high or marked relationships. In the above-average and average ability groups the coefficients for the girls are .54 and .88 respectively, and the coefficient for the entire group in the average ability group is .63. The coefficient for the entire group of sophomores is .72 which also indicates a marked relationship between measured and anticipated achievement in reading comprehension. The low coefficients indicated for some of the sub-groups in which the coefficient is relatively high for the entire group are likely to occur in groups which are restricted in intellectual ability.

CONCLUSIONS

From the results of this investigation the following conclusions were made:

1. Sophomores of below-average ability tend to be several months older than those of average and above-average ability and several months above the mean CA for sophomores. The opposite condition is characteristic of sophomores of above-average ability.

2. Sophomores of above-average ability tend to achieve well beyond actual grade placement, but their reading grade placement is slightly below their mental grade placement. Sophomores of average ability have a reading grade placement score above actual grade placement and, in addition, the reading grade placement score is greater than the mental grade placement. The reading grade placement score of the below-average ability group is below actual grade placement but greater than mental grade placement. The implication is that although the above-average

group is profiting from the curriculum which promotes reading ability, it does not profit as much as the average and below-average groups. This is not meant to imply that there is a weakness in the curriculum but that although highly favorable for all ability groups, it is geared slightly in favor of the average and below-average groups.

3. In reading comprehension, the above-average and average ability groups are achieving well beyond actual grade placement and the anticipated achievement level. The below-average group is achieving below actual grade placement but beyond the anticipated achievement level. The level of achievement in reading comprehension for the entire group of sophomores is greater than actual grade placement and the anticipated achievement level. The implication is that all sophomores are profiting to a greater extent than expected.

4. The level of achievement attained in reading comprehension is greater than the level attained in reading vocabulary. The implication is that the curriculum promotes achievement in comprehension to a greater extent than it does in the development of vocabulary. A partial explanation of this difference might lie in the fact that the CAT measures vocabulary development in four areas, and the difference may occur because of a weakness on the part of the students in one of these specific areas. Further research would be necessary to establish the validity of this statement.

5. Sophomores of above-average and average ability are achieving well beyond actual grade placement and anticipated grade placement in reading vocabulary. The below-average group is achieving be-

low actual grade placement but beyond the anticipated achievement level. The implication is that all students are profiting beyond expectations in reading vocabulary.

6. The relationships between mental ability and reading ability within the three intellectual ability groups and the subgroups are rather low, but for the entire sophomore group the relationship is much higher. However, they are not closely enough related to be utilized for predictive purposes.

7. The relationships between measured and anticipated achievement in reading vocabulary are rather low for the three intellectual ability groups and the subgroups within but are much higher for all of the sophomores combined. Prediction would not be reliable in view of the indicated relationships.

8. The relationships between measured and anticipated achievement in reading comprehension are only moderate with the exception of the girls in the above-average and average groups and the total group in the average ability group. However, only for the girls in the average ability group is the relationship high enough to indicate reliability in prediction. Also, the relationship for all sophomores is rather high which indicates a close relationship between measured achievement and anticipated achievement.

SUMMARY

The results of the *California Achievement Test* indicate that the sophomores in the Waco Public Schools are developing in the ability to read at a rate and level greater than the norms for sopho-

mores. These results are highly favorable to the Waco Public School System.

Correlations between mental ability and reading ability corroborate the findings of other investigations on these factors and, in general, indicate that the more capable students are more successful in reading than the less able students. Correlations between measured achievement and anticipated achievement in comprehension and vocabulary are not indicative of an extremely close relationship, but for the entire sophomore group the relationship is much closer. In general, sophomores, as a group, tend to achieve close to the

level that they are expected to attain.

Since reading is a developmental process, it is impossible to state that reading instruction at any grade level or school has been responsible for the favorable results which have been indicated by this investigation. However, it is likely that if the children had not received effective reading instruction at all grade levels, they would not have achieved as indicated by the results of this study. Other studies should be made at various grade levels because of the different factors which prevail and are peculiar to certain grade levels.

A Survey of Marriage Education in Twenty-Nine Junior Colleges

GEORGE W. GAMBILL

THE INSTITUTIONS STUDIED

In order to ascertain how the experience in marriage education at Andrew College compared with that in other junior colleges, a brief study was made during the summer of 1959 of 29 junior colleges in the southeastern part of the United States. A questionnaire was sent to the presidents of 89 junior colleges explaining that an attempt was being made at Andrew College to: (1) discover to what extent marriage and family life courses are taught and accepted by students and faculty on other campuses, and (2) determine the attitudes of the faculty toward such courses and find out if they tend to encourage early marriages.

Only questions pertaining to initiating a course in marriage and family living on a junior college campus were included in the questionnaire. Of the 89 questionnaires mailed, 58 or 65.1 per cent were returned. From this number, 29 replies from nine states indicated that a marriage and family life course was being taught, while 29 others indicated such a course was not being taught. If one were to assume that the colleges that did not reply to the inquiry also do not offer courses in marriage, then well over 65 per cent of the southeastern junior colleges studied would be listed in this category.

TITLE OF COURSE

A request was made for the title of the

GEORGE W. GAMBILL is President of Andrew College, Cuthbert, Georgia.

course and the name of the textbook or books used.

TABLE I

*Titles of Courses from 28 Colleges Reporting**

Designation of Course	Total Times Reported
Marriage and the Family	15
Preparation for Marriage	3
Family Living	2
Life Problems	1
Family Relations	1
Home and Family	1
Personality and Family	1
Family	1
Family and Community Living	1
Building a Successful Marriage	1
Home and Society	1

* One college failed to report title.

TEXTBOOKS USED

Among the 29 colleges reporting on textbooks used in the course, nine listed *Building a Successful Marriage* by Judson and Mary Landis as the preferred text. One college reported using more than one textbook; two did not adopt a book for the course.

NUMBER OF YEARS MARRIAGE COURSES WERE TAUGHT

Twenty-four of the 29 colleges offering a marriage course stated the course had been taught more than four years. In reply to the question, "Does the marriage and family life course lead to counsel-

TABLE II
Textbooks Used in Marriage Courses
by Institutions Reporting

Textbook	Number
<i>Building a Successful Marriage</i>	
Landis and Landis	9
<i>Marriage for Moderns</i>	
Bowman	3
<i>Marriage and the Family</i>	
Baber	3
<i>Education for Marriage</i>	
Peterson	2
<i>Making the Most of Marriage</i>	
Landis, Paul H.	2
<i>The Family</i>	
Burgess and Locke	1
<i>Modern Marriage and Family Living</i>	
Fishbein and Kennedy	1
<i>Facts of Life and Love</i>	
Duvall	1
<i>Marriage and the Family</i>	
Nimkoff	1
<i>Marriage</i>	
Koos	1
<i>Marriage and the Family</i> (for Catholics)	
Clemens	1
<i>Marriage Guidance</i>	
Healy	1

ing?", only four indicated it did; in 25 it did not. One possible explanation is that marriage counseling is not usually offered in most small junior colleges.

ATTITUDES TOWARD MARRIAGE COURSES

In the 29 colleges studied the students were almost unanimous in their approval of the course. The faculty members showed some indifference and skepticism toward the course. The greatest opposition to teaching marriage and family life education existed among the colleges where no such course was being taught. The objections reflected the belief that

trained leaders for such courses are difficult to find.

It is interesting to observe that 26 of the 29 college presidents or staff members took time to write a few words concerning the question: "Do you feel that a course in marriage and family living tends to encourage early marriage?..... Yes..... No..... Please comment:" Their replies follow:

1. We feel that the course has a maturing effect. If anything, it might discourage too early marriages.
2. I believe the answer is "yes" and "no." Some individuals are looking for "help" in convincing parents or selves and find it and get married. Others take a "second look" and delay plans for better preparation.
3. Our experience is that it tends to cause students to be more cautious about rushing into either "going steady," engagement, or marriage.
4. The course in my opinion is a must for young people, and if taught wisely and with sound objectives should have no negative reaction.
5. We have seen absolutely no relationship between marriage among students and the enrollment in this course. Frankly, we feel that if there has been any result in this area, it has been to retard somewhat hasty marriages among students. We have evidence that these courses have saved several marriages. Many of our adult enrollees in this course are young married couples.
6. It encourages restraint. It encourages facing responsibility.
7. We have no evidence that this course encourages early marriage.
8. Most students in this course are far more cautious and realistic about entering marriage than the average. They are thoroughly aware of the problems and difficulties that marriage presents. On the other hand, they gain a maturity and insight that makes them more competent to

- handle these problems and to work them out correctly.
9. Dr. Bowman in his text emphasizes the practicality of courtship and wise economic planning prior to marriage. Students in the class who have married before the course expressed the same viewpoint.
 10. One of the main purposes of this course is to discourage too early marriages.
 11. Our number of marriages has actually decreased with proper presentation of this course.
 12. We have married students, divorced students, and single students enrolled in the course. We find no indication that the course promotes early marriages. Actually, it might tend to slow down plans for early marriage.
 13. Our students like the course, and we hear many favorable comments about it.
 14. Since the course teaches the fact that young marriages are not as successful as mature marriages and points out various problems encountered, it tends to provide students with a more realistic and cautious approach.
 15. We have had some students who were planning to be married who took the course, but in all cases they were engaged before taking the course.
 16. It tends to impress students with the responsibilities involved yet without destroying the desire to make a good home their major life goal.
 17. Young people who become educated to all the factors involved demonstrate very consistently that they bring their intelligence to bear upon their choices of marriage partners and take into account the fact that time is necessary in knowing a person.
 18. I think such a course would enable students to evaluate better their motives and to decide more intelligently.
 19. We have offered a course in Marriage and the Family for some time, but no problems have arisen.
 20. We have taught this course for many years and have never had any negative reaction.
 21. If properly presented, it should work against premature marriages.
 22. If anything, it may discourage marrying at an early age.
 23. This course is a preparation for marriage so that young people may assume the responsibility thoughtfully but not hastily.
 24. We feel that it causes young people to think more seriously about marriage and all the problems which should be discussed by a boy and girl before they enter into this permanent relationship.
 25. I think it tends to decrease early marriages.
 26. I do not believe it affects students greatly either way, but I do believe it helps make a success of marriage.

The results of this study indicated that, in the opinion of those queried, marriage and family life courses do not encourage early marriages.

Junior College Counseling Needs

LESTER A. ALDERSON

The California State Board of Education, "acting under the authority of Sections 152 and 5717 and implementing Section 5717 of the Education Code enacted by the Statutes of 1959, amended Section 131 of Title 5 of the California Administrative Code, related to junior college scholarship standards to read as follows (effective October 24, 1959): 131, (h) *Counseling Services*: The junior college must have an adequate counseling staff, both in training and experience, to provide the students with the opportunity to assess their aptitudes, interests, and abilities, and to assist them to realize their potential to themselves and society." (*California Schools*, 30: 472, November, 1959).

THE ABOVE amendment to the California Administrative Code (related to junior college scholarship) poses many questions for those individuals involved with the counseling services of California's public junior colleges. Among them are: 1. What constitutes an adequate counseling staff? 2. What training and experience are essential or desirable? 3. What constitutes an adequate opportunity for students to assess their aptitudes, interests, and abilities? 4. What levels and types of counseling are necessary to assist students to realize their potential to themselves and to society?

During December, 1959, the writer conducted a survey of the practices and preferences of California's junior colleges in order to provide some of the answers

to these questions. A two-page questionnaire was mailed to the director of student personnel services in each of the California junior colleges. By early January, 55 responses were received.

PRACTICES

The first question requested information about the existing counseling organization in each college. Respondents were asked to check whether counseling was done (1) by instructors without release time; (2) by instructors with released time; (3) by instructors in psychology only, with released time; or (4) only by personnel trained specifically for counseling and guidance.

Respondents next estimated for their own colleges how many different persons devoted assigned time to counseling, how much released time they had, how many equivalent full-time counselors they would equal, and how many students were served by each equivalent full-time counselor. Only one institution indicated that all counseling and advising of students was done by instructors without time released from teaching responsibilities; each instructor served 12 students. Eleven institutions reported that instructors served as advisors with released time. This group indicated that 98 different individuals were used as advisors, devoting time equivalent to 27.5 full-time advisors. These institutions averaged 1/5 load released time and about 400 students per equivalent full-time advisor. As an example

LESTER A. ALDERSON is Head Resident Counselor in San Jose State College, San Jose, California.

of this type of organization, a junior college reported that eight instructors had 3/5 released time and that each one counseled 150-180 counselees. Three institutions reported that they used only instructors in psychology as counselors; these instructors were freed for a little more than half time to counsel about 125 students each, or about 250 students per equivalent full-time counselor.

About 40 per cent of the responding institutions indicated that their organization consisted of personnel trained specifically for counseling and guidance and that these individuals do all their counseling except for informal teacher-student contacts. One respondent stated: "Although all counselors began as subject matter teachers, several of our people have all or part of the requirements for the pupil personnel credential completed."

These 20 institutions indicated that 161 individuals (mean = 8; range = 7-16), which were equivalent to 108 (mean = 5.4; range = 1/2-11) full-time counselors, worked with 362 (range 87-1000) students. Eleven of this group of institutions reported 1/2 released time per counselor and seven reported that counselors were assigned full-time to this duty.

Seventeen of the junior colleges indicated that their counseling organizations were composed of a mixture of the four possibilities presented in the survey. Of these, 11 institutions made use of personnel specifically trained for counseling. These institutions averaged about 350 students per equivalent full-time counselor, and seven of the institutions made use of 39 full-time counselors.

BACKGROUND

In order to learn what background was

considered important for counselors to have, respondents were asked to evaluate five types of training.

For the colleges in which counseling is done by instructors without time released from teaching responsibilities, experience in teaching is the only background believed to be essential for counselors. The M.A., M.A. in psychology, Pupil Personnel Services Credential, and experience outside of teaching were all believed to be desirable.

As a group, eight of the 11 "instructor-advisors with released-time" junior colleges rated the importance of background factors as follows: (1) M.A., essential; (2) M.A. in psychology, desirable; (3) P.P.S. Credential, desirable; (4) teaching experience, unanimously essential; (5) other work, desirable.

One institution reported more fully and included interest in young people, personality, philosophy of education, point of view, reason for choosing counseling and guidance, and attitude toward student activities as other important considerations for employment.

The three junior colleges using only psychology instructors as counselors indicated that teaching and work experience other than teaching were essential backgrounds. They checked all the other qualities as desirable also. One institution commented that formal training was not as important as interest in working toward a pupil personnel credential and the ability to create a warm atmosphere and rapport with students.

As a group the "trained counselor" institutions made the following responses to the backgrounds which they believed to be important for counseling and guidance personnel: (1) M.A., split between es-

sential and desirable; (2) M.A. in psychology, split between desirable and unimportant; (3) P.P.S. Credential, split between essential and desirable; (4) teaching experience absolutely essential; (5) other work, desirable.

The most frequent comments made by these institutions were that a warm personality and an interest in working with young adults are important. One institution indicated that in the future it would employ only individuals holding a doctorate in psychology who would be willing to work toward a pupil personnel credential.

The respondents were also asked to rank in order of their preference the descriptions of six applicants who had never been employed for counseling before. The following table indicates their choices as a group.

	Average Rank	
2. Male, 5 years retail selling, M.A. in psychology, two years of successful teaching in business courses in junior colleges.	3.1	2nd
3. Male, B.A. in physical education, 13 years of successful teaching and coaching, General Secondary Credential with courses in guidance and in tests and measurements	3.4—	3rd
4. Female, M.A. in English, several years of excellent teaching experience, warm interest in young people	3.4+	4th
5. Female, M.A. in psychology, experience in high school teaching of social sciences	4.2	5th
6. Male, Vocational Class A Credential, and General Secondary with some work toward an administrative credential	5.2	6th
1. Male, M.A. in psychology, experience in junior college teaching of psychology, Pupil Personnel Services Credential, 3 years'		

technical experience in air force 1.6 1st

FUTURE NEEDS

Of the 65 institutions that were sent the questionnaires a total of 55 replied. Forty estimated their future needs and indicated that from 350 to 376 trained counselors would reasonably be employed over the next ten years. The following fields were mentioned the indicated number of times in connection with fulfilling this projected need for counselors: psychology (7), social science (8), P.E. and coaching (5), orientation and group guidance (3), English (5), mathematics (4), speech (1), business (5), science (3), music (1), sociology (1), agriculture (1).

DISCUSSION

A national survey by Medsker indicated that in the 73 institutions he surveyed, 17 had counseling done by trained counselors, nine had counseling done by faculty members with released time, and 40 had counseling done by faculty members *without* released time.¹ It is interesting to note that only one of the California institutions reported in the present survey used only faculty members without released time.

The average number of students for each equivalent full-time counselor as indicated by this survey is about 350—the range is 87 to 1,000 students. One respondent commented that “our counselors have the ridiculous load of 300 counselors.” Another one whose institution had 555 students for every full-time counselor wrote, “I think it should be half as many, but it never will be.” Is “adequate” opportunity for students provided by a staff

¹ Leland H. Medsker, *The Junior College: Progress and Prospect* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960).

that handles 1,000 students for full-time member, one that handles 350, or one that handles half that many? The State Board of Education has for the present left the definition of "adequate" up to the individual institution involved.

With regard to what constitutes adequate background training, almost all of the institutions rated previous teaching experience as essential (one thought it desirable). A little less than 50 per cent considered the M.A. essential, and the M.A. in psychology was rated unimportant by about 20 per cent. (This is the only type of training listed that was rated "unimportant" by a significant number of institutions.) The Pupil Personnel Services Credential was rated to be about as important as work experience in fields other than teaching. It might be pointed out here that almost without exception every institution that made further comment stated that the personality characteristics of an individual were far more important than a specific formal background of training which might explain why teaching experience is considered so essential. At present, observation of teaching is possibly the only reliable way of obtaining information about the personality (warmth and interest in young people) of individuals who indicate a desire to work in counseling. There is no evidence to indicate that the M.A. or even the Ph.D. in psychology provides any infor-

mation about the person holding it other than his academic achievement. One respondent indicated that he felt the training institution had an obligation to screen students entering this field. In place of this service most institutions depend on an applicant's record as a teacher.

Of the six sample applicants ranked, it was stated over and over again that personality was of more importance than any one of the listed backgrounds. Acting under the assumption that all of the candidates were comparable on all important variables other than those stated, candidate number six was ranked first on 30 of 46 questionnaires. It may be noted that this person possessed all (M.A. in psychology, teaching experience, other experience, pupil personnel credential) of the desirable background characteristics. Further indication of the importance of personality is that applicant number three tied for third with no formal training in psychology or counseling on the strength of her listed warm interest in young people.

It seems logical to conclude that no amount of formal training can compensate for an inadequate personality but that, if the intent of the new California law is to be realized, those individuals who possess the interest and personality for counseling should be trained as thoroughly as possible.

Organizing the Faculty for the Institutional Self-Study

DAVID L. MCKENNA

THIS ARTICLE is the result of an institutional self-study by the faculty of Spring Arbor Junior College, Spring Arbor, Michigan. The methods which were used for organizing the faculty and for studying the institution have produced a self-study report which has received the commendations of experienced college examiners. Also, the report has been used as a model by other colleges which are planning to conduct a self-study.

The results of the self-study for the college and the faculty, however, are even more important than the written product. Whereas the study was initiated by the administration of the college, the faculty members have now accepted the responsibility for improvement because they have been introduced to the rewards of institutional self-analysis; the external pressures for self-study have been transformed from threats to incentives; an institutional personality with distinctive features is emerging; and continuing analysis is now assumed to be an integral part of institutional planning. In total, quality in the college and among the faculty has been defined and improved as the result of the institutional self-study. Additional proof of the rising level of quality is the fact that the college was accredited by the North Central Association on April 1, 1960.

DAVID L. MCKENNA is President of Spring Arbor College, Spring Arbor, Michigan.

The general purpose of the self-study in higher education is to evaluate and improve the quality of the institution. However, the quality of an institution cannot be separated from the quality of its faculty. Therefore, a concurrent effect of the self-analysis should be an improvement in the attitudes and practices of the faculty. To achieve this mutual sense of growth, the self-study must: (a) *Define* the purposes of the institution in operational terms (b) *Analyze* the functions of the institution according to its definitive purposes; (c) *Plan* for short- and long-range improvements in the institution; and (d) *Integrate* the purposes, functions and plans into a unified profile of the institutional personality. It is this kind of self-study which can identify and enhance quality in an institution as well as among its faculty. A quality institution is thus conceived as a college which, over and above acceptable minimum standards, is uniquely personalized by purposeful direction, consistent functions and a continuing plan for improvement. Likewise, quality in a faculty is judged by the members' awareness of meaningful direction, sensitivity to constructive self-analysis and their identification with the institutional personality.

The achievement of quality at both of these levels depends upon the success with which the faculty is creatively involved in the self-study and personally identified with the purposes of the institution. Fac-

ulty involvement, then, becomes the organizational core around which the institutional analysis should be built, and faculty identification with the purposes of the institution becomes the goal toward which the self-study should be aimed. To recognize the importance of these features in the faculty organization for self-study requires that consideration be given to the following problems:

1. How can the faculty be motivated toward improvement through the self-study?
2. How can the faculty be organized for self-study in order to achieve both involvement and efficiency?
3. How can the faculty organization for self-study be a means for producing a report which combines an objective analysis with the personalized character of the institution?

While the guidelines for analysis are clearly established by each of the accrediting agencies, the answers to these questions will provide direction toward the goal of a report which not only describes the institution but lends new meaning and motive to the faculty as well.

FACULTY MOTIVATION FOR SELF-STUDY

The external pressures for the institutional self-study are numerous. State accrediting agencies are refusing to accept the responsibility for carrying complacent institutions. Ultimatums about meeting minimum standards and attaining regional accreditation within a limited period of time are becoming more frequent. Also, the new educational consciousness of the public and the programs of selective admissions have put a premium on regional accreditation. Better students are discouraged from attending non-accredited colleges by high school counselors. Professional schools are stressing

the advantage of an accredited pre-professional program even when the college is in the same state and supposedly there are reciprocal transfer agreements. These difficulties, in addition to the problems of the non-accredited college's being stymied upon application for foundation grants and in competition for qualified faculty members, are sufficient external pressures for a faculty to recognize the need for accreditation. It is questionable, however, whether they are the kind of motives which will produce a self-study which is more than meeting an external requirement. To achieve the quality of institution defined earlier, an intrinsic faculty motivation for analysis and improvement must be developed. This goal, in itself, makes the self-study a major task in human relationships. First, the sensitive academic ego will have to be conditioned to the fact that constructive self-analysis is not threatening. Second, the faculty members will have to merge some of their sovereign purposes with the purposes of the institution. This is not to say that the self-study is an administrative weapon for invoking conformity. Rather, it suggests that a successful self-study is the result of the total drive for excellence in an institution and that the faculty members must find themselves identified with that drive.

Because college faculty often have the reputation of being the "encrusted beneficiaries of the status quo," the task is not easy. But if it can be done, the result will be most rewarding. It can be comparable to seeing an uninterested student whose intellectual aspirations are limited to a gentleman's *C* suddenly become involved in an area of investigation which brings out the potential for critical thinking. So the self-study has both the promise and

danger of transforming an institution and a faculty.

AN ORGANIZATIONAL PLAN FOR THE SELF-STUDY

Two requirements must be met in the formal organization of the faculty for self-study. First, the organization must be established which will intimately involve every faculty member in the process. Second, the organization must be so efficient that an already overworked and committee-burdened faculty does not become mired in time-consuming detailed tasks or meetings. An organization which meets these criteria can be set up on a differential scale of responsibility at four levels: (a) Director of the Self-study; (b) Committee on Purposes; (c) Faculty Study Committees, and (d) Individual Faculty Assignments. The following chart shows the organizational pattern:

A. *Director of the Self-study:*

The primary responsibility for motivating, organizing and directing the faculty toward the goal of institutional improvement belongs to the director of the self-study. To accomplish this task he must have the prior motivation of clear insight into the purposes of the institution and a personal identification with them. From this position, he can present a preliminary plan for self-study which capitalizes upon his interest and optimism. Before the study is completed, it will be this kind of commitment which the faculty will also need and seek. However, motivation for the faculty will come not only from the director's intense interest in quality, but also from his judicious use of interim steps, such as progress reports, consultant services and immediate action on recommendations

which he can use to give the group a sense of accomplishment.

The preliminary organization for the self-study is also the obligation of the director. A proposal of a plan for the self-study will undoubtedly be made to the governing body and the faculty of the institution. The presentation will probably include statements about the need for the self-study, a plan of operation and a time schedule for completion. Then, the faculty must be organized according to the individual abilities of the members and the unique nature of the institution. The director of the study will share a major responsibility in the selection of study committee chairmen. Rather than leaving these positions to a random selection, individuals should be chosen who have indicated an interest in a particular part of the college program and are acquainted with the policies and practices of the research area. Individuals who meet these qualifications, even though they may be administrators, lend efficiency to the committee work and are preferred by the faculty.

After the selection of the study committee chairman and the organization of the study committees, the director still has the responsibility for providing direction for the work. Throughout the study, he will continue to serve as the reference source for procedural questions, as the liaison person between committees to integrate the work and possibly as the editorial supervisor for the publication of the study.

B. *The Committee on Purposes:*

Experience suggests that the committee on purposes, which is composed of the chairmen of the faculty study committees, may also be the steering committee for the

self-study. This organizational feature has merit for two reasons. First, the analysis of the functions of an institution requires an operational definition of the purposes which can be used as an objective standard for evaluation. Second, in order to create the sense of involvement which has been stressed as the key to a successful self-study, the chairmen of the study committees need to have a share in the responsibility for defining the ground rules for the study.

Not enough can be said about the importance of a clear definition of the institutional purposes. Once established by the committee on purposes and approved by the faculty, the chairmen can use them as guiding principles for analysis and can test them against the actual practices of the institution. Thus, the work of the committee on purposes and that of the faculty study committees will check and countercheck each other. Their mutual efforts will show whether or not the purposes are functional and the functions purposeful.

C. Faculty Study Committees:

The faculty study committees are the actual research units in the self-study. To these committees, the chairman should bring from the committee on purposes his personal involvement in self-study, his knowledge of the purposes of the institution and his plan for procedure. From this point, the chairman will lead his study committee in a discussion of the purposes as they relate to the specific area of analysis and will organize the individual faculty assignments within the committee. In other words, the committee chairman has the same responsibility to the committee member that the director of the self-study

has to the total organization. He must motivate, organize, and direct the individual faculty members for self-study within an assigned area. The committee work itself will include orientation discussion and assignments, follow-up reports of the individual faculty members and the preparation of the analysis for presentation to the total faculty.

D. The Individual Faculty Member:

With involvement and efficiency as the goals, each faculty member must be engaged in the self-study, but not with unreasonable tasks. If the faculty assignments for self-study are restricted in scope and professional in content, these tasks can be planned so that the important areas of investigation are selected for detailed analysis. A limited study of faculty teaching loads within a department, a comparative salary chart, or an analysis of course offerings within a department are examples of restricted assignments. In addition to being restricted, the faculty assignments must be professional. Otherwise, involvement is lost in meaningless drudgery. Under no circumstances should the faculty member be expected to perform the clerical work which can be done by secretaries. A device for increasing administrator-faculty and interdepartmental understanding is to include assignments for faculty members on at least two different study committees.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSTITUTIONAL SELF-STUDY

Whether or not a procedure for self-study in one institution is adaptable to the needs of another is debatable. However, a review of a possible procedure which emphasizes certain principles and prior-

ities may be a valuable guide for setting up other plans of operation.

Assuming that the proposal for the self-study has received the support of the governing groups of the institution and that the organizational pattern has been established, the first step is the operational analysis of the institutional purposes. In the initial work of the committee on purposes, a basic discussion concerned with the objectives and philosophy of higher education is imperative. Once the institution finds its place in the national, regional or state scene in higher education, it can then turn its attention to the specific goals it intends to reach. While the purposes cited in college catalogs frequently represent a calculated exercise in ambiguity, the definition of the purposes for self-study must be clear. The test question which the committee on purposes should ask is, "Can this purpose be translated into an operational function?" When the committee has prepared a statement of purposes which meets this test, the work of cross-checking functions and purposes can begin. It will be found that purposes not only provide a means of evaluating functions, but also that functions may demand the modification of purposes.

The statement of purposes proposed by the committee must also pass the scrutiny of the faculty. Prior to the work of the study committees, the faculty should have an opportunity to review and criticize the work of the committee on purposes. From the meeting should come an approved preliminary statement of purposes with which the faculty will be acquainted. Because of the threat that self-analysis can pose to individuals, a formal, accepted, impersonal standard for evaluation will also

avoid the controversy which a personal evaluation from a fellow faculty member or administrator might bring.

The second step in the self-study is to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the institution according to the standard analysis guide provided by the accrediting agency. An additional function of the director of the study might be to prepare detailed analysis guides for each study committee or simply to give the committees copies of all the material which the accrediting association provides for the investigation areas, e.g., manuals, statistical forms and examiner's score sheets. In this second step in the self-study procedure, time is an important element. While there are usually deadlines to meet, the time schedule should provide for a self-study in depth. There needs to be enough time to see the motive for continuing improvement become an accepted attitude among the faculty. Also, enough time is needed to produce a report which goes beyond the minimum requirements of comparative statistical data. For this reason, there is value in planning for a preliminary self-evaluation which has specific recommendations which can be incorporated into the ongoing operation of the institution. Certainly, a result of the institutional self-study should be the development of a plan to implement constructive criticism in decisive actions for improvement. Thus, the faculty study committees should have the responsibility for analyzing the various aspects of the institution and then presenting their evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses in a preliminary report. While the strengths of an institution are very important to recognize, it is worthwhile to emphasize a hard, realistic look at the weaknesses in order to make recom-

mentations for improvement. The report form might follow an outline which includes an analytical survey of the area, strengths and weaknesses revealed by the analysis and recommendations for improvement. While this preliminary study requires more time than a single study, it has the advantage of alleviating the threat of criticism among the faculty as well as establishing a pattern of continuing self-improvement.

As a follow-up step to the preliminary report, referral must be made to the action groups which are concerned with improvement. The analysis will undoubtedly result in recommendations to the governing board, the administration, the faculty and even the student body. These referrals will serve the purpose of reporting on the progress of the study and will reinforce the organizing principle of involvement. This is also the most appropriate time to use consultant services for an outside evaluation of the institution. Consultants serve an institution best when the ground-work for their study has already been completed by persons within the ranks. Because the faculty members are now aware of the strengths and weaknesses, the consultant's opinion will tend to confirm their findings or suggest new areas of investigation. Most institutions will find that regional and professional accrediting groups, state educational agencies and universities have specialists in institutional analysis whose services are available for reasonable fees.

At this point, a trial examination by an experienced examiner is invaluable. By participating in the actual process of a visitation, the work of the faculty can be coordinated into a total picture of the institution. Also, because a collective dread

has been attached to the examination visit, the trial examination can show that the real aim of the visitation is the improvement of the institution rather than the arbitrary prescription of the standards.

The final step in the self-study process may be begun after the purposes of the institution have cross-checked with its functions and the recommendations for short- and long-range improvements have been referred to action groups. The procedure for the final report is the same as for the preliminary study. Before preparing the individual study reports, the committee on purposes and the faculty should again appraise the purposes of the institution in the light of the findings of the preliminary study. If there are inconsistencies, either the purposes or the functions should be changed. Then, the revised statement should be presented to the study committees for incorporation into their reports. A device which will increase the sense of unity in the final report is to have each study committee prepare an introductory paragraph for their report which states how the purposes of the institution relate to the area being analyzed.

The study committees should also be instructed to include in their final report the changes which have been made as a result of the preliminary study. This means that the particular problems which were revealed in the preliminary self-study can now be investigated in detail. Projections for future needs, advanced work on space utilization, experimental curriculums, and more delicate operational problems should be the focus of attention in the final self-study.

The ultimate goal of the final report, however, should be the synthesis of the

preliminary study into a form which reflects the distinctive purposes and personality of the institution. This is the most difficult step in the procedure but the one that distinguishes between an average and a superior self-study. Previous steps have defined the purposes of the institution in operational terms, made the faculty conscious of its relative strengths and weaknesses, and established a continuing plan for improvement. Now, the results of these steps must be incorporated into a report which capitalizes on the individuality of the institution. While a general chapter outline is necessary to maintain some uniformity in the final product, the writers should be urged to exercise the right of selection and emphasis according to their study area. A suggested outline for the chapters could include:

1. *Introduction:*
 - A. A statement relating the purposes to the area being analyzed.
 - B. Preview of topics to be analyzed.
2. *Analysis:*
 - A. Description of areas of investigation.
 - B. Data to support analysis.
3. *Summary:*
 - A. Strengths and weaknesses of the area.
 - B. Recommendations to action groups for improvement.

In addition to the usual chapters dealing with such areas as purposes, administration, faculty, curriculum and instruction, and student life, other chapters

might be given to an explanation of special programs of the college. These chapters can capitalize on the distinctive contribution or advance planning of the institution.

In summary, the procedure for the self-study includes five progressive steps:

1. Analysis and definition of the institutional purposes.
2. Preliminary evaluation of the institutional strengths and weaknesses.
3. Recommendations to action groups for institutional improvement.
4. Use of consultant services, i.e., a trial examination.
5. Synthesis of previous steps into a unified description of the institutional personality.

The purpose of this procedure is to combine an operation with an organization which emphasizes faculty motivation and involvement, efficiency of operation and the unity of the institutional purposes and functions. Faculty motivation is enhanced by the opportunity for a well-planned, professional study. The procedure of limited committee work, significant individual assignments and the compilation of results into a unified report promote both creative involvement and efficiency. Finally, the carefully guided steps toward the final self-study report are planned to produce a study which has developed from a recitation of statistical data to an objective profile of the institutional personality.

Current Publications Received of Interest to Junior College Readers

Brown, Edwin John and Arthur Thomas Phelps. *Managing the Classroom*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1961. Pp. vi + 427. \$6.50.

This book, designed as a text for courses in classroom management, acquaints the teacher with the administrative responsibilities of elementary and junior high school classroom work and instructs him in handling routine matters expeditiously. With emphasis upon the development of democratic school citizenship, it treats the classroom as a community, with the teacher as its government and the pupils as its citizens.

Byrd, Oliver E. *Health* (3rd ed.). Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1961. Pp. xiv + 421.

Many changes, starting with *Health* as a new title, have been made in this revision of the *Textbook of College Hygiene*. These changes have been brought about by new research and new facts in the field of health, by further studies of the health problems and interests of college students and by suggestions for modifications by college and university teachers who have adopted previous editions of the textbook for their classes.

Charley, Helen. *Food Study Manual*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1961. \$4.25.

The purpose of this manual, which can be used with any basic textbook on foods, is to aid in the comprehension of the underlying principles involved in the prepa-

ration of a selected list of basic food products. The emphasis throughout is not only on teaching the student to prepare different foods but also on helping to understand the scientific principles involved. The manual was developed for use in a two-semester or three-quarter course at the college level. However, by judicious selection of topics and of material within topics, it will serve equally well for a one-semester or two-quarter course.

Harlan, H. C. *Readings in Economics and Politics*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1961. Pp. xvi + 751.

The purpose of this volume of readings is threefold: to serve the college and university student as primary or supplementary course material, to offer the general reader an opportunity to acquaint himself systematically with the best thought on a wide range of the fundamental problems, and to function as the basic reading material for organized programs of adult education discussion groups.

Harrell, Thomas W. *Manager's Performance and Personality*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1961. Pp. v + 218.

This book is written to managers, prospective managers, and students of personnel research. Many line managers are interested in the problems discussed here although they may wish to skip the numerous coefficients of correlation and other statistical data. It is hoped that the material presented will lead to research on

the selection of business students and business managers.

Harris, Raymond P. *American Education. Facts, Fancies & Folklore*. New York: Random House, 1961. Pp. vii + 302. \$5.00. Text: \$3.75.

In its basic viewpoint this book vigorously resists many of the currently popular criticisms of public education. Further, it takes a clear stand against some of the more general contemporary beliefs about American schools. And not least important, it argues as firmly as possible against the growing tendency to use our public schools as scapegoat in times of national distress.

Havel, Richard C. and Emery W. Seymour. *Administration of Health, Physical Education and Recreation for Schools*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1961. Pp. v + 440. \$5.50.

This is a book for the professional student in health, physical education, and recreation to provide him with basic information about the administrative duties in these fields. Throughout, the point of view is that of the practicing administrator who is confronted with numerous problems involved in organizing and directing the programs.

Henkin, Louis (ed.). *Arms Control*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1961. Pp. ix + 199. \$3.50.

Those responsible for this book and the American Assembly sessions for which it was prepared believe that there is much the public can and should know about arms control and the problems surrounding it. The American Assembly prepared this book to make available to citizens the knowledge they need to understand arms

control and form intelligent opinions about it.

Hoelscher, Randolph P. and Clifford H. Springer. *Engineering Drawing and Geometry*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1961.

The first edition of this book was based on the successful organization and teaching methods of a department that has been in continuous existence for over fifty years. It has been one that has had conservative overlapping leadership of experienced men. Each of the authors has an average teaching experience of more than forty years plus many years of engineering practice. This experience comes to fruition in this textbook. It represents a philosophy of teaching in engineering drawing and the other graphical sciences that is in harmony with the trend in present-day engineering education.

Hubert, Charles I. *Operational Electricity*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1961. Pp. x + 530.

Operational Electricity is intended for use in a two-semester course for students enrolled in nonelectrical engineering courses. In order to make the book useful to students whose background in science and mathematics does not extend beyond a knowledge of high school physics and trigonometry, the derivations employed have been blocked off in a manner that does not interfere with the presentation of the subject.

Hunt, Elgin F. *Social Science* (2nd ed.). New York: The Macmillan Co., 1961. Pp. xx + 887. \$8.50.

While the revised edition of *Social Science* includes many changes, every effort has been made to retain and strengthen

those qualities which brought about the wide adoption and use of the first edition. The new book has the same general objective as the earlier one, namely, to give the student a clear concept of our society and its problems in language he can understand. Also, like the first edition, it is so organized as to permit a considerable degree of flexibility in use. It is intended to fit the needs of a basic introductory course, one which should give the "terminal" student a useful understanding of society, while at the same time providing a firm foundation for the student who plans later to do work that is more specialized. In revising *Social Science* the author has kept in mind those recent trends in American education which, while recognizing the necessity of training students to do independent, constructive thinking, also recognize that such thinking is possible only against an adequate background of factual knowledge, plus an understanding of basic concepts and relationships.

Hunt, Elgin F. and Jules Karlin (eds.). *Society Today and Tomorrow*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1961. Pp. xvi + 507.

Society Today and Tomorrow was prepared primarily as a book of readings for the introductory college course in social science, but its wide variety of selections will, it is hoped, also interest the adult layman and students of the various disciplines within the social sciences. Some of the selections are short; some are rather long; some expound more fully than the average textbook certain important concepts; some present unusual or controversial points of view; and some are written with a light touch and leavened by a sense of humor. Always in choosing read-

ings the editors have tried to keep in mind not only their readability, relevance, clarity, and interest, but also the quality of the insights which they provide into the nature of society and its problems.

Husbands, Kenneth L. (ed.). *Teaching Elementary School Subjects*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1961. Pp. viii + 474. \$6.50.

A textbook on teaching methods and practices in the first six grades, this book has been designed for a single, unified elementary methods course. It should also be of interest to teachers who need special work or review in elementary education and to administrators, supervisors, and other school personnel who need a summary statement of the important principles and practices of teaching elementary school subjects.

Johnson, Willis H., Richard A. Laubengayer and Louis E. DeLanney. *General Biology* (rev. ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961. Pp. xiv + 655.

The second edition of *General Biology* has the same objectives and organization as the first edition, but many changes have been made. Two new chapters have been added: (1) a chapter on vertebrate classification and phylogeny, at the request of many users of the first edition, and (2) a chapter on cell function and ultrastructure, in which the primary aim has been to associate the processes of cellular respiration with mitochondria, on the one hand, and some of the aspects of protein synthesis with ribosomes on the other.

Jones, Everett L. and Philip Durham. *Readings in Science and Engineering*.

New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961. Pp. xii + 364.

In this book, students of science and engineering will find a wide variety of writing done by men active and prominent in science, scholarship, and industry. They will find many examples of scientific papers and reports prepared by specialists for other specialists. They will also find articles addressed by specialists to the larger scientific community—articles dealing with problems common to almost all kinds of research and development.

Karrenbrock, Wilbert E. and Harry Simons. *Advanced Accounting* (3rd ed.). Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1961. Pp. x + 965.

Advanced Accounting is designed as a textbook for a year course in advanced accounting. It has been prepared for the student who has completed introductory and intermediate studies that offer an appreciation of the theoretical framework of modern accounting. The advanced study seeks to provide an understanding and competence in the application of fundamental theory to special business fields and business activities.

Knickerbocker, Kenneth L. and Bain Tate Stewart. *Readings and Assignments*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961. Pp. x + 483. \$4.50.

The stimulation of distinguished contemporary readings combined with guidance in writing skills is offered here by two successful teachers. They have chosen readings that are clearly organized, effectively written, and significant in content for today's students.

Nelson, Oscar S. and Richard S. Woods. *Accounting Systems and Data Proc-*

essing. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1961. Pp. xii + 643.

The traditional accounting system is an information system, but not the only one found in business enterprises. It is, however, the most formal of business information systems, and for the accounting student, it is the most important one. For this reason, this volume emphasizes accounting systems, but not exclusive or related information areas. Order issuance, production control, feedback of information to management, and related topics are covered, even though they are not generally considered to be topics in accounting.

Noble, Howard S. and C. Rollin Niswonger. *Accounting Principles*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1961. Pp. x + 786.

This eighth edition of *Accounting Principles* retains the basic framework of the early chapters of the seventh edition. An introduction to the role of accounting in the management of business enterprises is provided in the first chapter, together with a carefully integrated exposition of the relationship of business transactions to financial statements.

Raysor, Thomas Middleton (ed.). *Shakespearean Criticism*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1961. Vol. I, Pp. liii + 226. Vol. II, Pp. v + 280.

Professor T. M. Raysor of the University of Nebraska, editor of the present and entirely reset Everyman's Library edition (in two volumes) of Coleridge's work, calls Coleridge the greatest of English critics.

Rogers, Terence A. *Elementary Human Physiology*. New York: John Wiley

& Sons, Inc., 1961. Pp. xii + 417. \$6.50.

This is a textbook of human physiology for undergraduates. It is widely agreed that students in nonbiological fields should receive at least some exposure to biological science and a course in human physiology is entirely suitable.

Runes, Dagobert D. *Letters to My Teacher*. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1961. Pp. 105. \$2.75.

The author takes issue with the educational methods practiced in Eastern as well as Western schools which he frequented in his youth. The result is a touching document of a philosopher counterposing the teachings of earlier generations with present-day systems. The author attributes many of the tragic failings of today to the inadequacy of yesterday's learning.

Tonne, Herbert A. *Principles of Business Education* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961. Pp. vi + 538. \$6.50.

A substantial revision of the popular "principles" book in the *Gregg Professional Series*, this volume effectively presents a complete overview of principles, problems, procedures, and practices in the field of business training. It helps bring depth, imagination, and perspective to classroom teaching through new ideas, statistics, and recent developments in modern business education.


Willgoose, Carl E. *Evaluation in Health and Physical Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961. Pp. x + 478. \$7.50.

This vibrant text provides the male or female student with a thorough background and understanding of tests and measurements as applied to health education and physical education. It aids the *undergraduate major* acquire skill in the appraisal of health status, physical fitness, posture, social efficiency, health knowledge and attitudes, individual differences, body build, sport skills, motor intelligence, and elementary statistics. To the *graduate student*, it will prove most helpful with its broad coverage of administrative measurement and research.

Young, Paul Thomas. *Motivation and Emotion*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1961. Pp. xxiv + 648.

This book is the only comprehensive textbook in the combined fields of motivation and emotion. While there is a current tendency to treat the topic of emotion within the context of motivation, or to treat emotion and motivation in closely related chapters, the present work recognizes the close relationship of these topics and logically treats them together in a single volume. A multifactor approach to the analysis of the determinants of human and animal activity is employed which provides a broad scope and tolerates rather widely divergent views.

The Junior College World



EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR.

A new commitment of \$337,600 has been made by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation to the American Association of Junior Colleges to aid in strengthening and expanding the Association's services over the next six years. These funds are in addition to, and overlapping, the five-year grant of \$240,000 made to AAJC by the Foundation in 1960, bringing the total commitment to the Association from the Foundation to \$577,600.

Additional staff services, consulting services, and publications will be provided for by the new funds. The grant will make possible the appointment of an additional person at AAJC headquarters to work with the Research and Service Commissions of the Association and for a person to handle the Association's increasing public information needs.

A major activity to be initiated is the sponsorship of a National Commission on Junior Colleges with a membership of lay persons of national recognition in their fields to serve in an advisory capacity for a period of three to five years. The Commission would be committed to consider the national policy and procedures relative to overall objectives of AAJC. Staff services will be provided to the Commis-

sion through AAJC headquarters and by an arrangement for a "visiting" staff person.

Objectives of the expanded program are:

1. To make additional, substantial efforts to raise the level of administrative competence through programs for preparation and upgrading junior college administrators.
2. To assist in establishment of strong programs of preservice junior college teacher preparation, in-service workshops and institutes, and experimentation and evaluation in teaching organization and practices and to find ways of inviting promising people to the field of junior college teaching.
3. To stimulate and assist junior colleges to develop comprehensive curricula where appropriate and with special attention to technical education community services.
4. To clarify and promote public understanding of the functions of junior colleges.
5. To assist the states to develop sound and orderly systems of junior colleges to serve the major part of the population in each state and to provide at the national and state levels adequate information regarding the appropriate services of junior colleges so that legislation involving these institutions will be realistic and constructive.
6. To promote more effective relationships between junior colleges and high schools on one hand and senior colleges and universities on the other.

7. To assist in strengthening state and regional organizations of junior colleges and to encourage a closer relationship between their activities and those at the national level.
8. To adopt measures to promote greatly improved student personnel services with particular regard to counseling and guidance.

In his letter approving the Association's request for funds, Maurice F. Seay, Director of the Division of Education of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, stated, "The program which you and your colleagues have described in your proposals is of tremendous importance to American education. We are glad to be able to cooperate with the Association in its efforts to expand its usefulness and effectiveness."

* * *

"Education in Japan, 1961" is an attractive graphic presentation printed by the Government Printing Bureau, Japan, and prepared by the Research Section, Research Bureau, Ministry of Education Government in Japan. The brochure includes substantial information in regard to junior college enrollments in that country.

Article 26 of the Japanese Constitution states that "all the people have the right to receive an equal education in keeping with their abilities."

Japan has junior colleges of two types, one offering a two-year and the other a three-year curriculum. These institutions offer general education, technical and semiprofessional training. They are private or public, public ones being prefectural, national or municipal. There are 9.7 per cent of the institutions that are national, 13.9 per cent local public and 76.4 per cent private junior colleges. The percentage of students enrolled in public junior colleges is 21.3 and 78.7 per cent

are in private junior colleges. At present there are 280 junior colleges, and 81,528 students were enrolled in these institutions in 1960. Of these, 32.5 per cent were male and 67.5 per cent female.

Unlike in Europe or America, the Japanese school year begins on April 1 and ends on March 31 of the following year. This system applied uniformly from elementary school through the university corresponds with the Fiscal Year System employed by the national government prefectures and municipalities. Elementary and lower secondary schools observe a three-term school year from April to July, September to December, and January to March. Most universities have two terms while upper secondary schools are adopting either the two- or three-term school year. Vacations are granted in summer and winter, just before and after the new year and in the spring, after the annual vacation.

Of the 280 junior colleges offering two- or three-year courses, 27 are established by the national government, 39 by local public bodies and 214 by private organizations.

* * *

U.S. Commissioner of Education Sterling M. McMurrin recently gave the *New York Herald Tribune* the following solutions to higher education's problems, as he saw them:

'A real shot in the arm' for college construction, whose present rate cannot take care of the predicted increases in enrollment.

Better utilization of present college space. Some institutions should teach from 7 a.m. until 10 p.m., rubbing out the distinction between day and evening sessions.

More junior and community colleges, and

technical and vocational training institutes. Many of the students in four-year colleges should be attending terminal, two-year schools.

Increasing effort to draw a higher percentage of college graduating classes into college teaching preparation. He predicted that more schools will set up *a new degree between the master's and doctor's, particularly useful for junior college teachers.* (italics ours)

* * *

"*Vocational and Technical Education in Illinois*" is a new 163-page study prepared by the Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education of the University of Illinois, for the Office of the Illinois Superintendent of Public Instruction.

This study examines the broad range of vocational education in the public schools, beginning with the programs in the high schools and extending to the more specialized or technical programs beyond the high schools. The study is concerned not only with programs for training youth but also with programs for educating adults. There is an attempt to interpret the implications of economic and technological change in America for future educational policy. Distinctions are made in the nature of vocational and technical education. Examples of curriculums are described to illustrate the emerging nature of technical education.

A ten-year goal of educational development is projected as a step toward meeting the occupational needs of a vital segment of the Illinois population and the needs of the state for trained manpower. Various methods of organization and finance are analyzed and proposals are submitted for consideration.

Although written primarily to serve the state of Illinois, the fact-filled volume

gathers a wide variety of material of nationwide applicability. Factual information has been collected from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, the Illinois Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, other state departments of education, and selected public junior colleges and technical institutes in other states. The results of various experiments throughout the nation during the past half century in such institutions as the vocational high school, the area vocational school, the technical institute, the junior college, and the community college have been analyzed. Intensive surveys were made by the staff in selected junior colleges, technical institutes, and area vocational high schools in California, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Illinois.

* * *

Wilmington College, North Carolina, held a two-week Science Institute this summer to stimulate interest in several important areas of learning among junior high school students. Presented as a feature inaugurating Wilmington College's new buildings and 600-acre campus, the program was presented in cooperation with the Board of Education of New Hanover County. Originally planned for 60 students, the institute enrolled 99 students from the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades selected by their principals and teachers.

Purposes of the institute were to induce the selected students and their parents to begin planning for educational futures before high school, and to give them some opportunity to investigate possible careers.

Instruction and demonstration were offered in the physical sciences, the biological sciences, history and geography of the Cape Fear Region, and Spanish. Lead-

ing representatives of science, education, and industry addressed the group each day on the educational requirements and vocational opportunities in a wide range of fields.

The institute closed with a single graduation ceremony at which students were presented with certificates of completion. Of the 99 students enrolled, all but two were "graduated."

J. Marshall Crews, dean of Wilmington College, directed the institute. The junior college expects to repeat the program next summer and will probably add a second program designed for senior high school students.

* * *

Five colleges in upper New York and Pennsylvania have agreed to a cooperative venture designed to combine sound economies with high academic standards. The colleges participating in the newly established College Center of the Finger Lakes, Corning, New York, are Corning Community College, Alfred University, Elmira College, Hobart and William Smith College, all in New York, and Mansfield State College, in Pennsylvania.

The immediate functions of the center will be to publish a joint calendar of events and an exchange program involving faculty, students, and guest lecturers. Outstanding professors, who might be beyond the means of any one of the institutions, may be "shared" by the colleges.

Future possibilities for the Center include:

- (1) A study of the curriculums of the colleges with the hope of eliminating duplication of costly, low-attendance courses
- (2) Exploration of cooperative educational television, and experimentation with teaching machines and other new methods of instruction

- (3) Establishment of a central library for expensive and rarely used books and research materials
- (4) Provision of space in Corning for such expensive equipment as data-processing systems, an electron microscope, or radio-isotope laboratory for use by all member institutions
- (5) Joint purchase of supplies, insurance, and printed materials.

Not all members will necessarily join in all cooperative projects. Other institutions in the area may be invited to join later.

* * *

An academic rank plan for colleges of the Los Angeles Junior College District has been accepted as administrative policy by the Division of Extension and Higher Education of the Los Angeles Board of Education. The plan was submitted by a faculty committee which has worked with Walter Coultas, assistant superintendent of the Division, over a period of several years in its development.

Formulators of the plan feel it will provide increased status, greater community prestige, and improvement in the personal welfare of the faculty.

The proposals stipulate that the title of Instructor shall apply to all probationary faculty and until they have at least three years of full-time college teaching. Evening instructors will receive the title of Lecturer.

Application for the title of Assistant Professor may be made upon completion of three years of full-time college teaching and recommendation to permanent status by the college president. Advancement to Associate Professor requires seven years of full-time college teaching and 70 points, or an earned master's or doctor's degree.

A committee will be appointed to establish criteria and procedure for the rank

of Full Professor which will become effective in September, 1963.

Faculty association presidents on each campus will submit the proposed plan to their individual faculties early in the fall

semester. The plan, which will be effective in February, 1962, will be established only if the majority of the faculty in the college so votes. It may be discontinued upon the request of a faculty majority.

This I Tried and Found Helpful

Teaching Interest in Business Mathematics

Olin D. Walcher, Northern Oklahoma Junior College, Tonkawa, Oklahoma

Traditionally, interest is taught by reviewing cancellation and then bearing down on the various applications of the 6 per cent, 60-day methods.

Fifteen years of experience in teaching business mathematics have convinced the writer that the cancellation method produces more errors than any other approach to the computation of interest. Also, many students cannot master the application of the 6 per cent, 60-day methods, particularly when rates other than 6 per cent are introduced and the days depart from 30, 60, and 90.

The writer's best success has come from teaching students to compute interest for one day and then multiply by the number of days applicable. The computation for determining the amount of interest for

one day, on any amount at any rate, can be very easily taught. Of course, principle multiplied by rate is the interest for one year. This annual interest is then divided by 360. To illustrate, if one is seeking interest on \$2,000 at 4 per cent for 80 days, the annual interest would be \$80. The interest for one day would be .22222. Interest for one day .22222 multiplied by 80 gives the required interest (\$17.78).

Students are always urged to prove their work in these business mathematics classes. All textbooks present various methods of computing interest so that problems may be readily proved. The "interest for one day" method is successful, because the steps in double checking are easily applied.



Recent Writings... **JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS**

How to Get into College, by Frank H. Bowles (185 pp.; E. P. Dutton & Co.)

This informative compact paperback, written by the president of the College Entrance Examination Board, is concerned primarily with the multitude of problems encountered by parents when the time arrives to send their children to college. There are hundreds of major and minor details that parents must understand before a logical and final decision can be made regarding whether or not a son or daughter should go to college. These factors involve elements of family preparation in general, of choosing the proper college, of financing, of application of admissions, as well as other possibilities which must be measured and weighed carefully until the last formality has been dealt with.

The author attempts successfully to identify the problems, to define them, to explain why they exist, and to categorize them into their component parts—in short, to explain the circumstances and suggest solutions by showing the parent how to make a few simple choices and decisions. The simplicity of his presentation will be a definite aid to parents who are not oriented to the ins-and-outs of higher

education in this age. The little volume is divided into the following general subjects: who goes to college and why; preparing for college; tests and testing; choosing among colleges; application and admission; financing college; college and the armed services; and, staying in college.

The book contains over 350 question-and-answer conversations, such as might take place between parents, students, and college admissions officers. The parents usually ask most of the questions, but every one is of substantial importance to the prospective student. This publication will not only be of value to the parent and student, but it should also be of interest and service to deans, guidance counselors, and faculty advisors.

Luis M. Morton, Jr.
Odessa College
Odessa, Texas

General Biology by Willis H. Johnson, Richard A. Laubengayer and Louis E. DeLanney (xiv + 655 pp.; Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1961).

In this revised edition, the authors have kept the aim of the original text (1956), that is, to give the student "the basic facts and principles of biology." An examination of the book leaves one with little

doubt that they have succeeded.

The first chapter defines living things, explains the importance and organization of biology and describes the scientific method. The next four chapters are devoted to the structure, functions, metabolism and reproduction of cells, particularly those in higher organisms. The roles, in the life process, of ADP, ATP, DNA, RNA and other complex substances are explained.

Next follow two chapters on the structure and metabolism of higher plants and 11 chapters of the same for the higher animals, with special emphasis on man. At this point there is a definite break in the organization of the text. The subject of taxonomy is introduced, and there is a systematic and detailed study of selected plants and animals for 20 chapters.

The book closes with six chapters describing the mechanism of heredity, the story of evolution and the role of environment.

Scattered through the book are over 300 clear illustrations and diagrams. Each chapter is followed by a selection of references for outside reading and a list of review questions designed to encourage thinking on the part of the student. Finally, there is a fairly complete glossary containing the technical terms printed in boldface throughout the book.

This reviewer feels that some teachers will not be entirely satisfied with the organization of the book. Although it begins,

as usual, with the study of the cell, the jump from cell ultrastructure in Chapter Five to structure of the flowering plants in Chapter Six seems rather abrupt. Not until Chapter Twenty, is there the conventional and systematic study of one-celled and progressively higher organisms.

Another reaction is that some sections of the book are somewhat advanced for a first course in biology. They might even do justice to texts on hygiene, anatomy or taxonomy. Today, knowledge in any particular branch of science is so vast that one can expect to master in one year little more than the basic principles, with enough facts thrown in to give applications.

Isn't it possible that the principles may become so buried in detail that the poorer students would be "unable to see the forest for the trees" and try to memorize the minutiae rather than comprehend the overall themes? It is here that the teacher should show the student where to put the emphasis.

The teacher who likes to organize his course to fit his personal qualifications and interests, his teaching facilities and his students, who likes to select and arrange his material, may find that *General Biology* is just the book for him. It is all there in generous measure between the covers of this up-to-the-minute text.

Owens Hand Browne
Saint Mary's Junior College
Raleigh, North Carolina

Subscribe to—

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

Because:

- America today should be well informed about the fastest growing phase of education.
- It is the only national periodical devoted to the junior-college movement.

Subscription price, \$4.00 a year

1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W. Washington 6, D.C.

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

JAMES W. REYNOLDS, *Editor*

MARION KENNEDY, *Associate Editor*

EDITORIAL BOARD

Representing the Regional Junior College Associations

BONNIE E. CONE
Charlotte College
Charlotte, North Carolina
CHARLES E. HILL
Rochester Junior College
Rochester, Minnesota
B. LAMAR JOHNSON
University of California
at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, California

HORACE WUBBEN
Mesa College
Grand Junction, Colorado
FREDERICK C. FERRY
Pine Manor Junior College
Wellesley, Massachusetts

JOHN L. CLARKE
Ricks College
Rezburg, Idaho
PHILIP KLEIN
Harcum Junior College
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania
REECE D. MCLENDON
Northwest Mississippi Junior College
Senatobia, Mississippi

BOOK REVIEW EDITORS

JAMES BLASING
Pueblo College
Pueblo, Colorado
OWENS HAND BROWNE
St. Mary's Junior College
Raleigh, North Carolina
KERMIT CRAWLEY
Stephens College
Columbia, Missouri
EDMOND M. GAGEY
Bradford Junior College
Bradford, Massachusetts
RICHARD G. GRIFFIN
New York Institute of Technology
New York, New York

RUDIA HALLIBURTON, JR.
Cameron State Agricultural College
Lawton, Oklahoma
JOHNS H. HARRINGTON
Division of Instructional Services
Los Angeles Board of Education
Los Angeles, California
HENRY KLEIN
Harcum Junior College
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania
HENRY LASH
Los Angeles Trade-Technical College
Los Angeles, California

LUIS M. MORTON, JR.
Odessa College
Odessa, Texas
IONE PETERSEN
Pueblo College
Pueblo, Colorado
JACK C. TRELOAR
Hinds Junior College
Raymond, Mississippi
MEYER WEINBERG
Wright Junior College
Chicago, Illinois
THOMAS Y. WHITLEY
Columbus College
Columbus, Georgia

American Association of Junior Colleges

OFFICERS

OSCAR H. EDINGER, JR., *President*
Mt. San Antonio College
Walnut, California
EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR., *Executive Director*
Washington, D.C.
CHARLES L. HARMAN, *Vice-President*
Bluefield College
Bluefield, Virginia
R. I. MELAND, *Convention Secretary*
Austin Junior College
Austin, Minnesota
C. C. COLVERT, *Chairman*
Council on Research and Service
The University of Texas
Austin, Texas

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

FREDERIC T. GILES
Everett Junior College
Everett, Washington
MARVIN C. KNUDSON
Pueblo Junior College
Pueblo, Colorado
KENNETH FREEMAN
Christian College
Columbia, Missouri
HAROLD BENTLEY
Northern Essex Community College
Haverhill, Massachusetts
BILL J. PRIEST
American River Junior College
Sacramento, California
DONALD E. DEYO
Montgomery Junior College
Takoma Park, Maryland
HARRY E. JENKINS
Tyler Junior College
Tyler, Texas

COUNCIL ON RESEARCH AND SERVICE

CHARLES E. HILL, *Editorial Board*
Rochester Junior College
Rochester, Minnesota
JOHN LOMBARDI, *Administration*
Los Angeles City College
Los Angeles, California
KARL O. WERWATH, *Curriculum*
Milwaukee School of Engineering
Milwaukee, Wisconsin
ROBERT HANNELLY, *Instruction*
Phoenix College
Phoenix, Arizona
KENNETH G. SKAGGS, *Legislation*
Chipola Junior College
Marianna, Florida
MAY RUSSELL, *Student Personnel*
St. Mary's Seminary Junior College
St. Mary's City, Maryland

If they didn't "catch on" and want to "catch up":

BASIC ENGLISH—spelling, writing, grammar, diction—is reviewed in these remedial texts to renew understanding:

Fundamentals of Present-Day English (3)

by CARLE B. SPOTTS, Pennsylvania State College (Slippery Rock)

2nd Series, Form A 1960, 381 pp., \$2.50 paper

1st Series, Form D 1958, 542 pp., \$2.50 paper

1st Series, Form C 1957, 328 pp., \$2.50 paper

(Key for all forms, the pre-test and post-test are all free to teachers. Answers to tests free.)

Helpful half-dozen: Rinehart English Workbooks

Introductory College English

by HANS P. GUTH, San Jose State College 1959, 236 pp., \$2.25 paper

A Spelling Guide and Workbook

by FALK JOHNSON, University of Illinois at Chicago 1959, 160 pp., \$1.90 paper

Essentials of Good English

by JAMES LUNEBURG, Compton College 1959, 199 pp., \$1.90 paper

Elements of Composition

by ROBERT H. MOORE, George Washington Univ. 1960, 237 pp., \$2.25 paper

Modern English Practice (2)

by H:LON WILLIS and LOWELL DABBS, both of Bakersfield College

Form B 1960, 319 pp., \$2.90 paper

Form A 1958, 319 pp., \$2.90 paper

BASIC MATHEMATICS—with emphasis on arithmetic and algebra—comes clear as concepts are explained in these three books:

Arithmetic for College Students (new this year!)

by LOVINCY J. ADAMS, Santa Monica City College, 1961, 271 pp., \$3.75

Understanding Basic Mathematics (new this year!)

by LESLIE MILLER, The Ohio State University, 1961, 509 pp., \$6.25

Fundamental Mathematics (paperback)

by LESLIE MILLER, The Ohio State University, 1957, 336 pp., \$4.25

Answers to numbered exercises \$.25; diagnostic test and achievement test \$.15 each

Holt, Rinehart and Winston

383 Madison Avenue, New York 17, New York

The Poem: A Short Anthology

by JOSEPHINE MILES, University of California, Berkeley

May 1961

480 pp.

Text Price: \$3.25

History of Religion in the United States

by CLIFTON E. OLMSTEAD, George Washington University

1960

628 pp.

Text price: \$7.50

For approval copies, write:

PRENTICE-HALL, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J.

History of the Roman People

by FRITZ HEICHELHEIM, University of Toronto, and CEDRIC
YEO, College of Puget Sound, Tacoma, Washington

1961

480 pp.

Text price: \$7.95

The Contemporary World: The Social Sciences in Historical Perspective

by THOMAS NEVILLE BONNER, University of Omaha; DUANE
W. HILL, Montana State College; and GEORGE L. WILBER,
Mississippi State University

1960

608 pp.

Text price: \$7.95
